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One of a pair of publications prepared under contract with the Office of Economic Opportunity, this guide is designed to help trainers, administrators, and other Community Action Agency staff prepare themselves and their agencies for the recruitment, selection, training, and supervision of neighborhood workers. Topics covered include developing an effective training program for subprofessionals, the role of the indigenous subprofessional neighborhood worker and his recruitment and selection, basic curriculum for training the neighborhood worker, and specific activities and teaching techniques which may be used in training. Typical problems of planning, timing, staffing, selection, and training are raised and suggestions for their avoidance or solution are given, based on the experiences of agency and training staffs. An annotated bibliography contains works on the background and theory of subprofessional personnel and illustrations of training and use of subprofessionals in such fields as community action, education, physical and mental health, social welfare, and youth and corrections work. (aj)

A GUIDE FOR TRAINING NEIGHBORHOOD WORKERS IN A COMMUNITY ACTION AGENCY

National Committee on Employment of Youth

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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A GUIDE FOR TRAINING NEIGHBORHOOD WORKERS IN A COMMUNITY ACTION AGENCY

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FOREWARD

A nonprofit, nongovernmental agency, the National Committee on Employment of Youth concentrates on the problems youth face in preparing for and finding work. The Committee monitors national policies and programs to further opportunities for youth, provides research and information about the causes of, and ways of dealing with, youth unemployment, and conducts training programs and conferences.

This Guide is one of two publications prepared under a contract with the U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity. The other publication, "Source Book for Neighborhood Aides in Community Action Programs," is aimed at providing substantive material for the subprofessional neighborhood worker. This publication is designed to help trainers, administrators and other CAA staff prepare themselves and their agencies for the recruitment, selection, training, and supervision of neighborhood workers. The second part of this Guide is an annotated bibliography on subprofessionals.

The staff wishes to express its appreciation to the individuals and organizations who advised, criticized, and contributed to the development of this Guide. In particular, we would like to thank Walter Walker, Consultant to Community Action Agencies, for his invaluable contributions to the writing of this document. In addition, we would like to mention the help and advice of Eli E. Cohen, Executive Secretary of NCEY; and Joel Seldin, Associate Executive Secretary, for his critical reading of the text and for his editorial assistance.

Any errors of fact or ommission are solely the responsibility of the staff.

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PART II

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PREFACE

This *Guide* presents a sequence of suggestions, guidelines, procedures and activities meant to help an individual community action program hire, train and work successfully with subprofessionals serving as neighborhood workers. It points out the major activities which the experience of a variety of training programs suggests are essential to successful agency and staff preparation, recruitment and selection of the workers, and to planning and implementing training and follow-through. Because the Guide is available to programs located in varied settings in different parts of the country, it is not a rigid step-by-step blueprint of what each agency should do. However, the typical problems of planning, timing, staffing, selection and training which have appeared again and again are raised and suggestions for their avoidance or solution given, based on the experiences of agency and training staffs.

Most of these problems are common to all such projects, but the solutions to them will differ from agency to agency. Methods and content which may help agencies avoid some of the pitfalls are suggested, but each program must fill in its own details and decide upon its own relationship to the issues raised. This Guide is not meant to be a panacea.

A great many community action programs suffer because the timing of training grants forces agencies to involve themselves in "instant efforts" to develop training--without sufficient preparation. *Time for planning and initial work with the staff as a group is of the essence*. Most programs don't begin to plan until their application for funds to hire and train neighborhood workers has been assured. This almost always results in a rush to obtain space, decide upon a trainer, and the like, allowing time to resolve only the simplest housekeeping questions necessary to begin recruitment, selection, and training. Lost is the opportunity to give serious consideration to staff views and resources, to meet as a group and develop a job description for the neighborhood workers which represents a meshing of the community's needs, agency's program, leadership, staffing, and potential and needs of the trainees. Planning the training program with a real understanding of the wide range of possibilities for developing effective subprofessional staff is also negatively affected. Sufficient time in which to think through the curriculum and obtain the necessary resources is often not available.

If it is at all possible, agencies are urged not to wait until their funds for training are assured before they begin their planning, even though in some cases the funds will not come through. Another possibility, used by some agencies, has been to obtain a special planning grant which pays for the initial intensive planning work and staff involvement.

The sequence of the major sections of the Guide may be accepted in the order presented or the order may be changed. There is a logic to the sequence which may or may not be appropriate for your agency and staff. Perhaps you have hired subprofessionals before and have already thought through with the staff, and experienced, such generalizations as "who he is," "how he relates to the professionals," "which of his strengths seem to integrate best with your concept of his work," "how he may affect the program." If so, you may not need to include very much of this content in your preparatory discussions with staff and trainer. You may be able to proceed to planning the curriculum without initial intensive work with the staff on hiring and training indigenous workers. Our assumption in developing the sequence is that subprofessionals have not been hired or trained before by your agency or, if they have, that the program left room for improvement in a number of areas--not all of them related only to the content of the training curriculum.

The content of the Guide is as follows: "The Preparation of Agency Staff for the Employment, Training and Supervision of Subprofessionals" provides the foundation for all of the steps which follow in developing an effective training program. An overview is given of the typical problems of CAAs which experience indicates has hindered the success of subprofessionals working in community action agencies. Possible solutions developed in the process of careful, initial staff planning and reassessment of agency goals are suggested. Integration of the new subprofessionals into the staff, the importance of professional attitudes, the qualities of effective trainers and supervisors are among the concerns described.

The second section, "The Neighborhood Worker" describes the indigenous subprofessional as seen by a variety of training programs which have worked with him. He is considered in the role of neighborhood worker and the conflicts of that role for him and his associates are discussed. A variety of possible role models which relate to agency function and policy are described.

The recruitment and selection process is described next. Its practical relationship to the basic philosophy of the Guide is noted.

"Planning the Training Program" outlines a basic curriculum for training the neighborhood worker. It also discusses the process of planning, assignment of administrative responsibility, and notes who might be chosen to participate in training.

The section on "Training Activities" suggests specific activities and teaching techniques which may be used in training the neighborhood worker. It is hoped that each trainer will develop his own, additional techniques. This section also relates the kinds of learning which subprofessionals need to the development of specific teaching activities. Models and schedules for training are described.

The Sourcebook for Neighborhood Workers which accompanies this Guide is a series of textbook-like materials providing "how-to-do-it," "how-to-find-it," and "how-it-works" information for trainees. It is written to be used during training and, when needed, as a resource for the subprofessionals while on the job. It is not meant to take the place of live consultants, field trips, experiential learning, group interaction, or discussion. It should not be allowed to turn the training program into a process which is little more than "read the section on consumer economics from pages 10 through 25 and we will discuss it tomorrow." The material is meant to be useful and important when integrated into a basic and flexible training experience using many methods and resources including discussion and role playing.

We have written this Guide in an effort to focus, at one level, on the central issues involved in training subprofessionals and, at another, on suggestions which will help each agency, staff, trainer, and supervisor apply these findings in a practical and specific manner most suited to their individual situation. Training programs do not exist in a vacuum; the most perfect program on paper can be subverted if these key issues have not been confronted and used. We hope that the questions we have asked, the suggestions we have made, and the examples we have drawn from actual training programs will help you avoid some of the pitfalls and develop, out of your own needs, circumstances, and talents, not only effective training, but dynamic and successful neighborhood workers.

Part II of this Guide is an annotated bibliography on subprofessionals which illustrates how subprofessionals are trained and used in different fields.

THE PREPARATION OF AGENCY STAFF FOR THE EMPLOYMENT, TRAINING AND SUPERVISION OF SUBPROFESSIONALS

The integration of subprofessional and professional staff into an effective community action team requires a careful analysis of the professional and political environment, goals, structure, and procedures of the employing agency. While the characteristics of the employing agency are fixed along some of the above dimensions, there remain a number of options that, if taken, can enhance the integration of the subprofessionals into the agency team. This section of the guide will consider the following:

A. The gestalt of the typical community action agency (CAA);

B. The problem of integrating the staff;

C. Problem resolution;

D. Trainers and supervisors of subprofessionals;

E. Supervisory techniques;

F. Other typical problems;

G. Continued in-service training.

It is anticipated that some of the points in this section will stimulate the reader to identify potential problems and to use available resources to cope with them as a means of welding a strong professional-subprofessional team to combat poverty.

A. The Gestalt of the Typical CAA

In communities across the country, CAAs have been carrying the major responsibility for the implementation of the anti-poverty effort. These agencies have had to develop program and structure from the guidelines set up by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Each community is at a different level of development in its efforts to cope with the problems of poverty within its jurisdiction. Some have had CAAs operating for almost three years, others have only recently established a local anti-poverty effort. Each of the CAAs, however, has had to evolve its program by reconciling the national guidelines developed by OEO with the particular characteristics of poverty in its local community. Despite the uniqueness of each CAA, there are a number of generalizations that are relevant to them all. For some CAAs, these general statements will merely point out that the process they have come through was not unique;

for others the statements will serve to illustrate some of the problems they will soon face. In any case, these problems serve to define the environment into which indigenous subprofessional neighborhood workers are being introduced.

The War on Poverty was declared in 1964 in an atmosphere of high hope. The general public felt that poverty could be solved in short order. And, having no real knowledge of the problem, tended to believe the propaganda that was a part of the program's beginnings. The poor, on the other hand, were much more cautious. Their expectations had to be raised as a result of their long exposure to disappointment. Three years later, the public's realization that poverty is not a problem that lends itself to quick and easy solutions has begun to develop. As a result, the anti-poverty effort is the focal point of controversy about whether to escalate the effort, deescalate the program, or seek entirely new instrumentalities to reach the national goal that was established in 1964. Thus, subprofessionals are being asked to join a program that is the subject of both national and local debate.

The CAA represents an effort to establish a local agency that has vertical ties with the national office of OEO and horizontal ties with the service agencies, the local political structure, and with the poor. As a result, the CAA serves a number of masters. For funding, it must design programs that OEO will approve, it must gain the effective cooperation of many local service agencies, it must survive in the context of the local political machinery, and it must organize and respond to the expectations of the poor. This situation can result in program goals that are unclear at best and contradictory at worst. Subprofessionals are being asked to work in this confusing and frustrating context.

In a number of CAAs, two functions have been identified as primary: winning the cooperation and respect of traditional health, welfare, legal and educational institutions in order to encourage the development of new and more effective services for the people in poverty areas; and winning the cooperation and respect of the individuals and groups in the target area so that they can be organized for collective social, economic and political action.

In their efforts to achieve these two primary goals, many CAAs have found themselves in a cross-fire of criticism. On one side, this fire comes from the agencies whose cooperation the CAAs are seeking. From the other, it comes from the poor people the CAA has been organizing, but who are in conflict with the traditional agencies. Professional employees of the CAAs have found the dual roles dictated by the two loyalties an extremely difficult exercise in wearing two hats at the same time. Subprofessionals are being asked to wear the same two hats. Thus far, most CAAs have not been able to establish clear guidelines that will serve as a frame of reference for their staff as it attempts to implement the two primary goals.

As newly created agencies dedicated to change, the CAAs are not bound by the traditions of the past that so often make it difficult for social and other human-service agencies to promote or accept change. CAAs are typically created by hiring a few key staff. They expand gradually as new programs are funded. CAA staff are recruited from existing agencies, from universities and colleges, among Peace Corp returnees, and from labor unions, private industry, the civil rights movement, and law firms. Each of these sources contributes its own traditions to what ultimately becomes the CAA.

Because of the lack of an overriding tradition, CAAs can be problem-focused rather than tied to the traditions of the past. The lack of tradition also can mean the lack of precedents. As a result, many decisions about both policy and everyday operations have to be made without referring to precedent. In some CAAs, this factor has resulted in long delays in the decision-making process and to mutually contradictory decisions being made about the same issue. This lack of tradition can make it extremely difficult for any new staff member to "learn the ropes." This is particularly true for subprofessionals, who normally have no relevant occupational identity to fall back on as a source of security.

By virtue of the way they are usually created, CAAs are typically a collection of professionals from very divergent backgrounds. For many of them, participation in an anti-poverty program represents a sharp contrast between the professional roles they formerly played and the professional roles they are expected to play in the CAA. Staff members are generally new to each other because of the wide variety of recruiting sources. As a result of their newness to each other and their lack of experience with the roles they are expected to play, professionals sometimes adopt a defensive posture and are unable to professionally analyze their own work. A typical posture is for a professional to hide his uncertainty about his own role in the agency by claiming that he and only he understands the poor. He may use the language of the poor and spend more time being critical of his colleagues than he spends doing his own job. Where such a dysfunctional situation exists, subprofessionals will find it difficult to establish their own roles in relation to professionals.

New CAAs normally go through a period of relative administrative chaos as they seek to establish themselves as organizations. Changes in personnel, policies, nonpayment of salaries, arbitrary salary levels, and constant changes in procedures are typical of the new CAA. Professionals often express sarcasm about the state of flux within which they are attempting to function. Subprofessionals coming into such a setting will find the chaos much more difficult to cope with because of the cumulative effect of the disappointments and frustrations of their lives. The subprofessional's reaction to the confusion and the professional's sarcasm may well enhance subprofessional cynicism.

CAAs typically operate in an atmosphere of crisis. At times the demands of a political situation will cause a CAA to drop ongoing programs to cope with an emergency. In recent years, CAAs have had to operate a number of such crash summer programs. Recreation programs, job finding programs, and other devices designed to prevent unrest in large urban centers have all been operated by CAAs, with little time available for planning. Professionals in many CAAs take pride in their ability to respond to demands for "instant program"; in many instances, operating crash programs removes the responsibility for quality from the professional's shoulders. The involvement of subprofessionals in poorly planned crash operations can also result in cynicism. It is not unusual, as a result of participating in a crash program, for the subprofessional to conclude that all the professionals really care about is pleasing their superiors and collecting their pay. The subprofessional is usually able to evaluate a program's impact on his community; he is not likely to be committed to an agency that continually operates low-quality crash programs.

B. The Problem of Integrating Staff

A number of factors contribute to the difficulty of effectively integrating subprofessionals into the CAAs that are not a result of the organizational characteristics of CAAs. If the CAAs were traditional social welfare, educational, or other human-service agencies, there would remain problems that are inherent in an effort to introduce indigenous subprofessionals into a professional setting.

As the use of subprofessionals has spread among programs dealing with the poor, one of the implicit and, in some cases, explicit assumptions has been that the professionals who have previously provided direct services have failed in their efforts. In some cases professionals have responded defensively to this assertion. In other cases, the professionals have decided to give the subprofessional a chance and to stand back and watch him fail.

Some trainers argue that the self-image of the indigenous person is so low that the temptation to exaggerate the natural abilities of the trainees is extremely difficult to resist. They may then find themselves telling the trainees that their poverty-filled background has provided them with the capacity of providing more appropriate services than the middle-class professionals with whom they will be working. In such cases, subprofessionals will tend to be glib about the problems that they are attempting to deal with. Professionals will tend to hope that the subprofessionals will fail so that professional practice will be vindicated.

The subprofessional and the professional normally come from different socio-economic circumstances. As a result, each will have to adjust to the other. The subprofessional must learn to cope with the professional world in which he will be working. His socio-economic background and his psychological make-up give him a variety of coping mechanisms or devices. He can be very dependent-- relying on the therapeutic instinct of many professionals to tolerate dependency as a means of establishing relationships. He can immediately identify with the professional as a means of flattering the professional's image of himself. He can be hostile as a way of challenging the professional to be the person who breaks down this poor, alienated person's hostility to the larger society. Often in an attempt to reach the hostile subprofessional, the professional will over-compensate for the deprivations suffered by the subprofessional in the past. The subprofessional can then demand that the professional accommodate to him because "I'm poor and you are here to help me."

Many subprofessionals will refuse to commit themselves to the CAA or to their own development as a means of guarding against the possibility of failure. They will try to protect their self-image by always leaving themselves the possibility of saying "I could have done it if I had really wanted to."

The background of the subprofessional may make it difficult for him to trust the professional. His past experience may have convinced him that professionals are people to be manipulated and "conned." A person who has grown up in a family whose very existence has depended on the ability of family members to manipulate social workers, public housing officials, or other representatives of the larger society, can hardly be expected to immediately give up those skills that have helped him to survive.

It may be a long time before the subprofessional will begin to see that his new work environment demands new coping skills. It is conceivable, however, that the new situation in which the subprofessional finds himself is so structured and "operationalized" that his old skills, slightly modified, will serve him very well in the CAA. This is particularly true if he finds that the professionals rely on these same skills, though modified and sugar-coated, to survive in the environment of the CAA.

The realities of our society make it quite probable that the professional will come from what is broadly defined as the middle class. There is an excellent chance that he will be of a racial group different from the subprofessional. Under these circumstances professionals have been known to project their fears about not being accepted by less advantaged people onto the subprofessional. Given these and other more orthodox fears, some professionals tend to be punitive as a means of defending themselves against the poor, others feel so guilty and unsure of themselves that they aren't able to demand responsible practice from the subprofessional.

The professional must adjust to the introduction of "those people" into the inner structure of his work-a-day world. He will be on the same staff with people whose socio-economic group has been known to him only as patients or clients. He may rely on his natural coping mechanisms for dealing with people who are "different." He may become authoritarian as a means of maintaining social and professional distance. He may be permissive as a means of avoiding unpleasantness. He may seek a professional-client relationship as a means of reestablishing the one type of relationship with "those people" with which he is comfortable. He may become a "buddy" instead of a colleague as a means of making peace with the differences caused by socio-economic, racial, or educational backgrounds.

One of the characteristics of professionals is that they are reluctant to admit that the tasks over which they have had jurisdiction can be performed by someone with less training. In a number of CAAs, the professional staff have had to deal with their own reluctance to structure a role for the subprofessional and restructure their own roles. Success in this area has been uneven across the country. The difference between the subprofessional roles seems to depend on the actual motivation behind the initial reluctance of the professionals. In those instances where the professionals genuinely felt that the subprofessionals couldn't handle the functions suggested by CAA administration, the results of demonstration projects in other cities, evaluative research, and small-scale trials within the CAA, convinced them of the capabilities of the subprofessionals. In those instances where the reluctance of the professionals was based on their own need to cling to subprofessional tasks as a means of avoiding professional responsibility, the CAA administration was unable to convince them to really experiment with the use of subprofessionals with open minds. In these CAAs the subprofessionals were never allowed to develop to their fullest potential.

C. Problem Resolution

The problems discussed under "The Gestalt of the Typical CAA" and "The Problem" do not exist in all CAAs. Where they do exist, subprofessionals will have a difficult time making an effective contribution to the CAA program. The administration of a CAA that does have some of the problems which have been discussed can seek to solve the agency's problems on two levels:

1. Problems that result from a lack of clear policy statements or from the natural chaos of an evolving administrative structure can be solved by making explicit policy decisions and by relieving administrative log-jams;

2. Problems that result from the inherent difficulties involved in integrating the functions of subprofessionals and professionals require the creation of an agency atmosphere in which both professionals and subprofessionals are willing to experiment and learn from the mistakes that will inevitably occur.

Since policy and administrative issues are normally resolved at a higher level of the CAA's hierarchy than the interpersonal and emotional issues that are related to the agency's atmosphere, and since the atmosphere of an agency is often influenced by decisions on policy and administration, it seems appropriate first to review the policy and administrative issues previously identified and to point up possible directions in which solutions can be sought.

High Hopes of General Public and Rising Expectations of the Poor

This problem creates a situation that is far from the realities of poverty. The CAA should make it clear to the entire community that its programs will not solve poverty overnight. The agency should use every means available to emphasize to its professional and subprofessional staff, the target population, the city council, and to the general public the true dimensions of the task ahead. While optimistic propaganda may have served a valuable purpose in helping the program to be born, at this point it serves to place unrealistic expectations on the staff of the CAA. These expectations have provided the atmosphere in which the program's critics can feel free to call for massive changes in the character of a program that hasn't been given a chance to demonstrate its potential.

The CAA Serves Many Masters

The very nature of the task that the CAAs are charged with requires that it establish effective relationships with a number of autonomous agencies, the city and county governments, the poor, and with national OEO. Each of these relationships opens up new possibilities for the CAA to mount effective programs. Each of these relations also places limitations on the autonomy of the CAA. Any organization that enters into agreements with other organizations has to give up something in order to get the other organizations to contribute to the agreement. This principle of organizational exchange holds true even when an agency purchases a service from another agency. The purchasing agency may make no commitments other than to pay for the services delivered, but that commitment is enough to limit funds that the purchasing agency can commit elsewhere. All staff should understand that the CAA is not autonomous and that there are effective limits to what is possible for it to do at any given time.

Clear, concise program goals should be written along with time tables and any other pertinent information that will help the staff of the CAA know where it is headed. Staff should know and understand the reasons for the constraints under which they are operating. Clearly, the professionals should have this information so that they may function as professionals; the nature of the constraints should determine whether or not the subprofessional staff will be able to make constructive use of the information.

The Service and Social Action Functions

No tangible evidence has been presented as to whether the social action and service functions are compatible within the framework of a CAA. Little hard data has been presented which measures the impact of the service function on the social action function and vice versa. The impact on the staff members who have been asked to implement both functions at the same time has been reported a number of times.* The confusion that has resulted from the dual roles has either caused subprofessionals to be ineffective in both, or to select one of the roles and focus all their energy on the comfortable role. If the CAA administration assumes that the two functions are not incompatible within the framework of the CAA, then it should consider the following alternatives to training the subprofessionals to play both roles at the same time:

1. Dividing the roles into two separate jobs and hiring two distinct groups of indigenous people to be trained to perform the two functions;

2. Dividing the training and role assignments along a temporal dimension, with the trainees first being trained to accomplish social action tasks, then assigned to social action roles. Later they can be trained to make referrals to service agencies and to help poor people negotiate the bureaucracies of the community's service delivery systems with their subsequent assignment being in that role;

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*Denham, William, Naomi Felsenfeld, and Walter L. Walker; The Neighborhood Worker: A New Resource for Community Change (Monograph) Institute for Youth Studies, Howard University, Washington, D.C., 1966, pp. 18-20; and Brager, George "The Indigenous Worker: A New Approach to the Social Worker Technician" Social Work, 10:2, April, 1965.

3. Attempting to provide clear, explicit practice guidelines for the subprofessional that will prevent him from being confused and will allow him to negotiate the thin middleground between overemphasis of either role.

In deciding which of the above training and utilization models are appropriate for a given CAA, such factors as the characteristics of the local poverty problem, the focus of the CAA, the available training resources, and the available funds for subprofessional staff should all be considered.

Newness of the Staff to the CAA and to Their Roles

In-service training for all levels of staff is an effective means of giving the staff the tools that are required for effective participation in the CAA program. The assumption should not be made that the previous backgrounds of the staff members have automatically prepared them for effective participation in the anti-poverty effort. While all levels of staff are selected for the training, experience, and attitudes that they bring to the job, effective teamwork requires that their efforts be coordinated toward the agency's goals. In-service training can serve as a means of giving the staff a common frame of reference within which to function. This investment of the CAA's resources will go a long way toward helping the professional staff clarify its own role. This clarification should make the professionals much more capable of working with the subprofessional staff.

Administrative Chaos

As the CAA develops into a functioning organization, administrative procedures will be developed. It is necessary that these procedures be well developed. It is important that these procedures be kept compatible with the programatic functions they are designed to support. Too often administrative procedures become vested with a life and an importance of their own and, as a result, begin to hamper the development of program. This becomes crucial where subprofessionals are concerned. The effective introduction of a new category of worker into a functioning agency requires that the agency make a significant administrative commitment to the newcomers. When these newcomers had formerly been known to the professional and administrative staff only as clients, this administrative concern becomes paramount. Organizational support systems such as payroll, personnel, and maintenance must be alert and committed to facilitating the newcomers' integration into the agency with a minimum of confusion, uncertainty, etc. The subprofessionals should be paid promptly. Provision for workspace, lounge space, the hanging of coats, etc., should be made well in advance of the arrival of the subprofessionals. Administrative commitment can be extremely difficult to demonstrate when support system personnel are not "tuned into" the agency's commitment to the subprofessionals. Efficient bureaucratic functioning has often provided support staff with a trained incapacity to respond to the different needs that subprofessionals bring to the CAA. This problem has to be faced by the agency executive and he has to provide the executive sanction required for the support staff to make the needed changes.

The Atmosphere of Crisis

It has been noted that the CAA has to respond to crises. To reduce the cynicism among subprofessionals as they see the agency drop programs and commit its resources to crash programs, it would be wise to limit the extent to which these shifts have direct impact on tasks the subprofessionals are committed to on an ongoing basis. Wherever possible the commitment of a subprofessional to a task should be respected and he should be allowed to finish it before he is shifted to a crisis situation. To the extent that this is possible, the commitment of the subprofessional to his assigned tasks will be strengthened.

Once the policy and administrative issues are resolved as much as possible, the question of the agency atmosphere and the willingness of professionals to work with subprofessionals requires attention. If the professional staff can live with the administrative and policy decisions in effect in the CAA, then they can provide a substantial input into defining the CAA's expectations of both the professional and the subprofessional staff. The professional staff should be involved in developing the subprofessional's job description as well as providing suggestions for the form, method, and content of the training program. This involvement means a substantial investment of the CAA's time and resources, but the understandings reached will pay substantial dividends in the future.

Where the professionals are involved from the beginning, a professional commitment is created. The professionals feel obligated to cooperate with a project to which they have given form and substance. The professional peer group tends to reinforce this commitment when an individual professional or a small group of professionals indicated an unwillingness to work with the subprofessionals in a manner consistent with the agreements reached by the staff as a whole.

The administration must also be prepared to enforce the decisions reached with regard to the utilization and training of the subprofessionals. This means that the supervisory and executive staff must establish an effective feedback mechanism in order to monitor the progress of the subprofessionals. When circumstances arise in which the progress of the subprofessionals is hampered by the resistances of the professionals, the administrative and supervisory staff must be prepared to make judgments and enforce them in order to allow the subprofessionals to make their most effective contribution to the CAAs program. The administration should do all in its power to reward openness and objectivity on the part of the professional staff. Professionals should be encouraged to express their feelings rather than to supress them. Those unable to work with subprofessionals should not be forced to, but should be transferred to another department if it is at all possible.

D. Trainers and Supervisors of Subprofessionals

The trainers and the supervisors of the subprofessionals are crucial to the process of integration that must occur if subprofessionals are to be effective members of the team. Who are the professionals who can play these crucial roles? What kinds of skills and knowledge do they need in order to be effective? What should be their relationship to the rest of the professional staff? Should the trainers be members of the staff of an outside training agency or should they be members of the staff of the CAA? The appropriate answer to each of these questions lies in the characteristics of the CAA, the available resources, and the judgment of the CAA staff. The following paragraphs are intended only to suggest one possible set of criteria for selection and one possible model for the utilization of a trainer of subprofessionals.

The Trainers

It is important that the training personnel be well grounded in the appropriate professional discipline. (Which disciplines depend on what the subprofessionals are being trained to do.) They should not be newly-trained practitioners who are still involved in finding their own professional identity. On the other hand, professionals with rigid concepts of how tasks should be accomplished probably will not be able to modify techniques in order to take advantage of the strengths of the subprofessionals. The trainer should have tried out the traditional methods of service in order to see both their strengths and their inadequacies. He must have the ability to look rationally at traditional professional practices and suggest changes that are based on his commitment to improving practice. His commitment must not be to the criticism or enhancement of his or any other profession.

The training task requires that the trainer be able to have empathy with and act as a consultant to the professionals who are working with or supervising subprofessionals. At the same time, he must be able to have empathy with and play a number of roles in relation to the subprofessionals he is training. He must be a teacher who helps the trainees to look for the skills that will help them perform as subprofessionals. He must be a colleague of the trainees who, along with them, is willing to admit that he doesn't know all the answers. He must be an enabler who helps the trainees to look critically at the society in which they live, the agency in which they work, the training program itself, the functioning of their colleagues, and their own functioning.

The trainer must have the ability to accept people whose value system differs from his own on a colleague basis rather than as clients. This means that he must be ready to emphasize the strengths of the trainees and to view their weaknesses as job-related rather than personal problems. He must be ready to accept the personal problems of a subprofessional worker as no more and no less his concern than the personal problems of a professional worker. He must value the perceptions of the subprofessional as being on a parity with those of professionals who are somewhat removed from the problems under consideration. The trainer must believe that the poor have potential for growth and development. He must demand that each subprofessional work to the limit of his capacity. He must be able to evaluate his own practice to be certain that his expectations of the subprofessionals are based on fact and professional judgment rather than on stereotypes.

The training of subprofessionals requires that the trainer be secure enough in himself and in the validity of the training goals so that he can represent reality to the trainees. He must not underestimate the trainees' capacity to face reality. There must be no efforts to protect the trainees from the harsh realities of their status, the real problems associated with helping other human beings, or the problems inherent in CAAs.

Differences in learning styles must be respected in any training program. The trainer must be able to evaluate his own practice as it relates to the learning styles of the trainees. He must continually be able to reject the authoritarian position as being "the only way you can handle these people." He will be under constant pressure from the trainees to adopt the authoritarian posture because it is the teaching model that they are most familiar with. Yet he must remember that the school experiences of his trainees have probably failed to prepare them to function in a manner consistent with their inherent potential and that the ultimate goal of the training program is to prepare the trainees to think for themselves.

Supervisors

In many ways the supervisor is the key professional from whom the subprofessional learns. It is from his supervisor that the trainee learns the practical demands that are a part of being a member of the CAA's staff. The supervisor communicates the value system of the agency to the subprofessional. He helps the subprofessional to cope with the "culture" of the CAA; to deal with both the formal and informal networks of communication within the agency; and to understand the explicit and implicit prerogatives that belong to the various categories of agency employees. Many of the skills that the subprofessional masters will be taught in a tutorial fashion by the supervisor. The central importance of the supervisor's role requires that careful consideration be given to the selection, orientation, and everyday functioning of these professionals.

The qualities of a good supervisor are similar to those that are desirable in a trainer. There are some additional qualities that are important for the supervisor to have. The supervisor should be a member of the operational staff of the department of the CAA that is utilizing the subprofessionals. How the potential supervisor is perceived by his colleagues is an important consideration for or against selection. Candidates who are seen by their colleagues as effective practioners tend to lend organizational prestige to the activities within the agency that they participate in. Supervisors whose participation in their agency's activities is seen as positive, creative, and sound, will draw the support of their colleagues to almost any new activity they are identified with. If, on the other hand, the potential supervisor is seen by his colleagues as a complainer whose skills were inadequate for the tasks to which he had been assigned previously, then his participation in the effort to utilize subprofessionals may serve to doom the effort prematurely in the minds of the other professional staff.

The selection of supervisors should proceed under the assumption that ideal supervisors will be extremely difficult to find in sufficient numbers. This being the case, some thought should be given to the relative importance of the qualities sought for in an effective supervisor of indigenous subprofessionals. The following is a ranking of these qualities in descending order of importance:

1. Professional competence in the program area in which he is assigned;

2. Ability to individualize and to look objectively at poor people;

3. Freedom from rigidity with regard to traditional professional practice;

4. Commitment to improvement of service;

5. Substantial practical experience;

6. Absence of guilt about his middle-class status;

7. A commitment to rational scientific inquiry.

The supply of qualified candidates for the role of supervisor will determine the extent to which the CAA will be able to utilize supervisors who rank high on all or most of the criteria. The ultimate success of the program will depend heavily on the ability of the CAA to find highly qualified supervisors in sufficient numbers. The issue of quality should be paramount in the CAA's early training efforts so that if a program is unable to obtain an adequate number of sufficiently qualified supervisors it should either reduce the number of trainees or increase the supervisory workloads and the amount of time each supervisor has for working with subprofessionals.

Once the supervisors are selected, they should be thoroughly oriented to the philosophy and the details of the training program through which the subprofessionals are moving. In those CAAs where on-the-job training (OJT) is concurrent with classroom training, the supervisors should attend the training sessions regularly. They should feel free to make contributions to the content of the class sessions, and should not feel reluctant to contradict any statements that a trainer may make that are not consistent with the reality of the CAA's program. The supervisors and the trainers should have regular meetings so that the inputs into the subprofessional's training can be effectively coordinated.

The role of supervisor in a program that utilizes subprofessionals is a complex and demanding one. There are at least six components of the role that require some discussion in relation to subprofessionals:

1. The supervisor as a teacher. His function is to impart knowledge and practical techniques to the trainees. The supervisor usually works from the specifics of a particular task to the development of generalized principles that will govern the subprofessional's practice in similar situations.

2. The supervisor as a role model. He presents the subprofessional with a model of work-related behavior that the subprofessional may imitate, identify with, or reject as being totally unsuitable.

3. The supervisor as an agent of referral. In the course of working together, the trainee may feel free to ask the supervisor for either help or advice on a problem that is outside the scope of the supervisor-worker relationship. In these instances, the supervisor can be most helpful by making an appropriate and effective referral of the trainee to other sources of help.

4. The supervisor as a co-worker. The supervisor from time to time should work alongside the subprofessional. This serves to establish the usefulness and dignity of the tasks assigned to the subprofessional. It also helps the supervisor to empathize with the subprofessional as he tackles new and sometimes difficult tasks.

5. The supervisor as an interpreter of the role of subprofessionals to other agency staff. The introduction of subprofessionals into an agency often results in a certain level of organizational stress. If the supervisor commands the professional respect of his colleagues, he can explain the program and the demands it makes on the organization in terms of the policy implications, organizational pay-off, and positive effect on the quality of the program of the CAA.

6. The supervisor as a boss and an evaluator. The subprofessional will have to learn to cope with the demands of a boss. The trainee must learn to follow directions, show responsibility, relate to authority, and submit his work for evaluation. In order to help the subprofessional meet these requirements, the supervisor must make consistent demands on the subprofessional. In a discussion to follow, more attention will be given to supervisory techniques.

Each of these roles will be a part of the daily life of the supervisor. He must be alert against any tendency to function as the trainee's therapist. It might be quite evident to the supervisor that the trainee requires casework or psychotherapy. However, the supervisor must understand that while some understanding of the emotional stresses and strains which are a part of the subprofessional's life is helpful to the supervisory relationship, the supervisory process should be task-oriented and related only to the subprofessional's ability to perform on the job.

E. Supervisory Techniques

The supervisor of subprofessionals faces a tremendous task. He must select those tasks for the subprofessional that will, at the same time, serve the program goals of the CAA and further the subprofessional's learning. He has to teach the subprofessional what he has to know in order to accomplish the task. He must support the subprofessional as he tries new and unfamiliar tasks. The supervisor must evaluate the trainee's efforts and he must be prepared to re-teach those portions of the task that the trainees did not perform up to expectation. All of this he must do while either carrying out that part of his own job that is related to providing services to the target population or exercising supervisory control over other professional staff who are providing service.

Selecting appropriate tasks for the subprofessional requires that the supervisor analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the subprofessional in terms of his readiness to complete the task. This means that the supervisor must know what level of skill and knowledge is required to complete the task, as well as whether or not the trainee has the requisite skills and knowledge. The supervisor must consider the relevancy of the task to both the educational objectives of his relationship with the subprofessional and to the CAA's program. He must consider the possible impact of success or failure on both the subprofessional's training goals and the operations of the CAA. His consideration of these factors should lead him to select tasks that will challenge but not defeat the subprofessional and that will serve to make the subprofessional a contributing member of the CAA's work force.

Care must be taken by the supervisor to see that the subprofessional does not find himself continually repeating a task he has mastered merely because the task is important, or because he and the rest of the staff find it more comfortable for the subprofessional to do it. It is the supervisor's responsibility to ensure that the subprofessional's work assignments steadily progress from the simple to the more complex, from the easy to the more difficult, and from the comfortable to the more uncomfortable, until the subprofessional has covered the full range of tasks called for in his job description.

When assigning tasks to subprofessionals, the supervisor should explain at least the following points to ensure that the subprofessional has a real chance for success:

1. What must be done? The task must be clearly specified so that the subprofessional can understand the goal toward which he must work.

2. How must it be done? The procedures for completing the task shoudl be specified, including the range of acceptable initiative that the subprofessional may use in completing each step of the process.

3. What equipment or materials are needed to complete the task? The subprofessional should be helped to decide for himself what he will need to complete a job. The immediate task of the supervisor is to help the subprofessional understand that any worker has to know what tools he will require to complete the job.

4. Where and how can the subprofessional get the necessary equipment and materials? This is particularly important in larger CAAs where the location and securing of resources involves an ability to function within a bureaucratic system.

5. What level of performance is expected? The supervisor must make clear his expectations so that the subprofessional can have a realistic idea of what "success" is. This knowledge is important if the subprofessional is to learn how to evaluate his own work as he proceeds.

6. How much time is appropriate for the completion of the task? This is another dimension of the supervisor's expectations that the subprofessional should be clear about.

7. How much help or direction can the subprofessional expect while he is working on his assigned task? The subprofessional should consider the supervisor as another organizational resource and he should have an accurate idea of its availability. Vague assurances that the supervisor's door is always open are seldom helpful to beginning professionals or subprofessionals.

8. What is the relationship of this particular task to the over-all program of the CAA? How much priority does this task have over the other demands that may be made on the subprofessional? The subprofessional should be helped to understand the value of the task to which he is assigned in relation to his colleague's roles and the CAA program as a whole.

Once the subprofessional has begun the task to which he is assigned, the supervisor's role shifts a bit. He now should seek to provide appropriate support for the subprofessional. This support depends very largely on two factors: procedural agreements that he has reached with the subprofessional, and his own ability to control his anxiety about the subprofessional's performance. If it is at all possible, the supervisor should honor prior agreements with the subprofessional and not casually "drop in" on him if they have agreed that the subprofessional could complete the task independently. On the other hand, if the supervisor has promised more active support, he should deliver it.

When the subprofessional has completed the assignment, he will have an idea of how well he did if the supervisor did a good job of outlining the assignment originally. What the subprofessional needs is a confirmation or denial of his self-evaluation and help in improving his performance the next time he is given the same or a similar task. It is at this point that many supervisors of subprofessionals are tempted to say that they did well when they actually didn't. This is usually done either to avoid a confrontation with all of the potential discomfort evaluation may produce for both the trainees and the supervisor, or because the supervisor really doesn't expect very much from the trainee and is willing to accept poor work.

In these situations the trainee is not likely to be fooled! He has an estimate of how well he has done and he may come to one of two conclusions; that he is immune to criticism because his supervisor pities or is afraid of him, or that the program is a farce and that all everyone is doing is putting in time and drawing a salary. The supervisor must demand increasingly higher performance from the trainee. He must let the trainee know that the CAA will not accept second class work and that the trainee should not allow himself to be satisfied with it, either.

The supervisory model has two dimensions: time and method. Regularly scheduled conferences are an integral part of the culture of some CAAs. The supervisor should meet regularly with his workers to discuss their progress toward their operational goals. The frequency and the duration of these conferences should be determined by the needs of the worker as perceived by both the supervisor and the trainee. An effective practice is for both parties to keep time clear, and for the time to be used unless both parties agree that a conference is not appropriate at that time.

Supervision should be both technical and administrative. The trainee should have only one person to answer to in the CAA wherever possible. Two modes of supervision are currently being used: group supervision and one-to-one supervision. Agency practice varies as to which mode of supervision is appropriate. There are advantages and disadvantages in both.

Group supervision provides the workers with an opportunity to learn from the supervisor and from each other in a structured situation. The group can provide support for each trainee as he struggles to learn. Often, fellow trainees serve to facilitate communication between the supervisor and a worker. The group can serve as a check on a supervisor's tendency to negate the realities within which the trainees are functioning. A peer group can apply sanctions to those members who are not performing up to their capacities. As the subprofessionals begin to function in the agency, they will find that they are performing a unique set of functions. These functions, along with their status and socio-economic background, will tend to set them apart from the rest of the agency staff. Group supervision will provide them with a reference group that will serve to strengthen their identity as subprofessionals. Finally, the supervisor can use the group for teaching and reteaching of skills in a more economical fashion, since he will not have to repeat himself with each trainee.

There are some disadvantages to group supervision. Members of the group who learn rapidly are often held in check by the pace of the group's learning. Groups can make scapegoats of those members who don't meet the group's approval. Some aides will be unable to discuss openly their private problems in front of their peers. The group may be able to overwhelm the supervisor by its numbers and unity, producing a possible distortion of the realities of both the working situation and the supervisor-worker relationship. In general, the group situation is more threatening to the supervisor and may cause him unnecessarily to initiate power struggles between himself and the group.

Individual supervision may be more appropriate because of the supervisor-worker ratio and the strengths and weaknesses of the supervisors. Certainly individual conferences provide a clear opportunity to focus more directly on a subprofessional's particular problems. The trainee may be more ready to accept help when it is not offered in front of his peers. The conferences can be more nearly tailored to an individual trainee's learning style.

On the other hand, the subprofessional may be so intimidated by the power of the supervisor that he will be unable to function in the one-to-one situation. In the individual conference method there are fewer checks on both the trainee's and the supervisor's perception of reality. There are only two opinions available in the room and in case of disagreement, the supervisor's opinion will usually prevail. Each trainee is clearly limited by the one-to-one situation in the opportunities available to him to learn from the mistakes of his peers.

The decision as to the optimum supervisory mode should be made with the relative advantages and disadvantages of each method clearly in mind. This should be a rational decision based on an examination of the factors discussed above and other factors related to the operation of the CAA.

F. Other Typical Problems

The utilization of subprofessionals produces problems that are not normally subject to policy in an agency staffed by professionals. These examples should serve to alert a CAA preparing to hire subprofessionals to the types of problems that can develop.

1. Should Subprofessionals be included in social events that other staff members participate in? CAAs tend to produce a culture of their own. The difficult and stress-producing nature of the tasks makes it almost inevitable that the staff begin to associate with each other on a social basis. This social life can include the subprofessionals only if the staff accepts one ground rule. The social conduct of both the professional and subprofessional staff members should not be used as a basis for evaluating the staff members' ability to perform on the job. While professionals share relatively consistent ideas of what appropriate conduct at a party is for themselves, they must guard against a tendency to judge the behavior of the subprofessionals by the same standards. Subprofessionals also may tend to misinterpret the behavior of professionals in social situations and, as a result, may carry these misconceptions back to the agency framework. If the social behavior of people from one subculture is used by the members of another subgroup to make judgments about work performance, only bitterness and dysfunctional organizational behavior can result.

2. What happens when a subprofessional is arrested by the police? The backgrounds of the subprofessionals make it a reasonable possibility that they will be arrested while they are employees of the CAA. Resulting publicity has to have a negative impact on the CAA's image. Should the CAA withhold judgment and continue to employ the subprofessional until he is proven guilty in a court of law? Should the CAA immediately terminate the subprofessional? One agency, when faced with this problem, suspended the employee immediately and agreed to allow him to return to work and to give him all of his back pay if he were freed by the court. There was a seven-months delay between

the arrest and the trial. During this period the agency could not fill the subprofessional's budget slot because it had agreed to pay his back pay if he was freed. By the same token, the subprofessional in the case was deprived of his income when he needed it most. Other agencies have held the subprofessional employees to the same standard that was in force for professional employees, ignoring that the subprofessionals lived in neighborhoods where the police did not hesitate to arrest residents on the slightest provocation. The question is difficult and the answer selected will not be perfect. What is indicated, however, is that the CAA should anticipate the possibility and consider what its policy will be before the first subprofessional or professional is arrested.

3. Loans between professional and subprofessional staff. Although the subprofessional may be earning an adequate salary, this does not erase the effects of a long history of unemployment or underemployment. Old bills, the purchase of long-desired appliances, or a request for assistance from a neighbor or relative may impel the subprofessional to borrow money. The CAA should recognize the reality of these situations and provide a credit resource for CAA employees. By establishing an impersonal institutionalized source of credit, the CAA will be able to require that no money be loaned between professionals and subprofessionals. This is important because experience has shown that some professionals, after lending money to subprofessionals under their supervision, have tended to take a punitive attitude toward the subprofessional when the loan was not repayed. Professionals have also been known to borrow money from subprofessionals and to delay repayment. In these situations some of the subprofessionals were afraid to ask for their money for fear of reprisals. While the lending of money is a personal issue between the parties involved, the issue ceases to be personal when performance on the job is influenced.

4. The subprofessional wants to move out of the target area. Many subprofessionals are hired because they live in the target area and have an intimate knowledge of poverty. Yet it is quite possible that after a few months of successful employment and regular pay checks, the subprofessional wants to find better housing outside of the area. If he implements this desire does he become less useful to the CAA? Does he begin to lose touch with the poor? Can the CAA justify requiring

> that a person continue to rear his children in a slum if that person can afford to move out? This question resolves itself to one of values. It is important, therefore, that the CAA communicate its position on this issue to the applicant before he becomes a part of the staff. By doing this, the CAA leaves the decision to each applicant, where it rightfully belongs.

G. Continued In-Service Training

The integration of subprofessionals into a CAA requires that the agency make a substantial commitment to in-service training. This training commitment can take the form of regular staff meetings in which program issues instead of administrative issues are discussed. It can take the form of after-hours seminars for which the subprofessionals are compensated, or it could take the form of monthly one-day retreats. This effort is vital to the success of the CAA's program for a number of reasons. CAAs experience an above-average amount of staff turnover. If this turnover is not caused by resignations or other terminations of employment, it is caused by rapid expansions in programs that, in turn, result in internal transfers, promotions, etc. The CAA cannot afford to assume that every person who takes over a new role can do so without any additional training. This is particularly true for subprofessionals.

As new programs are developed, the relevant staff should be trained so that they have a full command of the goals, methods, and roles that are vital to the success of the new programs. The staff should have a structured opportunity to review the new program in the light of their experience in past programs. The subprofessionals should have a chance to discuss the program in terms of their special knowledge of the target area.

The national focus on the problems of poverty has caused many social scientists and social researchers to study poverty in an effort to understand its dynamic and structural aspects. While these investigators are not turning up formulas for the solution of poverty, they are providing insight into areas in which practitioners have navigated without charts for many years. The organizational routine and administrative problems of CAA can cause its staff members to be so buried in programs that they don't have time to read the research that either confirms or denies the wisdom of their program conceptions. A deliberate attempt to provide time, within the context of the CAA mission, for all levels of staff to join in a search for truth will pay dividends in program conception, organizational integration, staff morale, and staff competence.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD WORKER*

Who is the person your agency will be training as a neighborhood worker? This section gives an overview of the neighborhood worker, drawing on the observations of community action agencies which have employed and trained them. The worker is described as trainee, supervisee, and subprofessional team member on the CAA staff.

Much has been written about the culture of poverty and the job performance and styles of individuals who have experienced poverty. In addition, study by observation has been done with some groups already selected and trained for work at a subprofessional level.** Descriptions of the subprofessionals' styles of learning have been noted. Their manner of relating to members of the community and to the staff have been reported. Their effect upon the agency, one another, and the community have been assessed by demonstration community action training projects for subprofessional neighborhood workers.

Drawing on the reports of these experimental demonstration programs this section is organized around the following questions:

.....Does the indigenous subprofessional have skills and a life style which are not usually attributes of most professionals and which are of value to the program? If so, can these be protected and developed?

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*The term neighborhood worker is used interchangeably with neighborhood aide in the Guide and Sourcebook. This subprofessional has also been given other titles. Sometimes this is due to the focus or style preference of a particular program; sometimes other titles are found where programs have succeeded in developing a job progression with more advanced and specialized roles. In most community action programs the subprofessional serves as a bridge between the professional staff and the community, in the role of two-way liaison. His duties may be those of a specialist or of a generalist. They may include one or a mixture of the functions of extending agency services to the community, obtaining information from the community, or community organization.

**Observation must be distinguished from true research. One promising research project, incomplete at the time of this writing, is being carried on by the Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Community Psychiatry Project of Lincoln Hospital, Bronx, N.Y., funded by the National Institute of Mental Health.

.....What generalizations have been formed about the limitations of indigenous subprofessionals which affect their work negatively? Can these be changed through training and administrative procedures without harming them or their effectiveness?

.....Do subprofessionals have learning styles which are identifiable and to which training and supervision can be attuned?

.....Do subprofessionals, once hired and working, tend to change their attitudes toward their neighbors? What seems to affect this?

.....What tendencies toward role conflict--who am I--what should I represent--appear repeatedly? Have some new approaches to working in the community helped ameliorate role confusion on the part of the neighborhood worker?

Skills and Life Style

Does the indigenous subprofessional have skills and a life style which are not usually attributes of most professionals and which are of value to the program? If so, how can these be protected and developed?

Of the culture of poverty, Allison Davis, of the University of Chicago, has written:*

> The underprivileged worker lives in a different economic and social environment from that in which the skilled and the middle class workers live. Therefore, the behavior that he learns, the habits that are stimulated and maintained by his cultural group, are different also. The individuals of these different socioeconomic statuses and cultures are reacting to different realistic situations and psychological drives. Therefore their value and their goals are different.

The Lincoln Hospital Training Manual of the Community Psychiatry Project of Albert Einstein College of Medicine lists some of the themes which dominate low income culture.**

...Security vs. status

...Pragmatism and anti-intellectualism

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* Allison Davis, The Motivation of the Underprivileged Worker, in William F. White, Editor, Industry and Society, McGraw Hill, 1946.

**Training Manual I, Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Services, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 1967.

...Powerlessness, the unpredictable world, and fate

...Alienation, anger and the underdog

...Cooperation, gregariousness, equalitarianism and humor

...Authority and informality not in contradiction

...Person centered, particularism

...Physicalism, masculinity and health

...Traditionalism and prejudice

...Excitement, action, luck, and the consumer orientation

...Non joiners

...Special significance of stable female-based households.

> The focal concern of low-income culture (in an urban setting) can be characterized as involving family and kinship stress, neighboring, restrictive participation and voluntary association, preference for the familiar, anti-intellectuality, authoritarianism, intolerance, pessimism-insecurity, cynicism, extra-punitiveness, toughness, and consumption stress.

It is important to look in more detail at the workers' strengths as they relate to the job, training, and the agency.

The staff of the Institute for Youth Studies at Howard University compiled a list of characteristics of their subprofessional trainees.* IYS chose its trainees from what they termed the "have nots." These would be the poor who do not have formal power in the neighborhood. Among those selected, their assets for this kind of work were IYS notes:

...He knows what it is to be poor and is able to perceive some of the causes of that poverty.

...He wants to do something about it and has some ideas about what to do.

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*W.H. Denham, H.S. Felsenfeld, W.L. Walker, The Neighborhood Worker, A New Resource for Community Change, A Monograph on Training and Utilization, Howard University, Institute for Youth Studies, 1966.

...He has been waiting all his life for a decent job with some meaning.

...He has survived as an individual under situations of great stress and still remains alert and related.

The Mobilization For Youth Visiting Homemakers project staff also reported some positive characteristics of those it selected as subprofessionals.*

...Social distance from the target population was much less than that of the professional staff.

...They were hard working, enthusiastic, and responsible.

...Though untrained when they arrived, they were not unskilled.

...They were able to mobilize the client population through directness, informality, and practical action.

...They taught clients homemaking skills by "doing with" rather than simply "telling how" which was more effective. Their capacity to serve as an acceptable model was used particularly well.

...Their response to need was quick and practical.

...They were far less formal and emotionally constrained than the professionals.

...They tended not to perceive people as problems, looking first at the practical situation within which the person found herself.

The neighborhood worker in a CAA, whether from the very poor or from the group which is already drawing closer to the middle class, does have different and unique contributions to make which are not usually natural to the middle-class professional. He knows the subtle nonverbal language of the poor neighborhood; its patterns of thought and behavior. He knows the kind of despair which poverty and minority status cause and can anticipate its effects in many situations. He knows the meaning of distrust in a minority or poverty culture and has ready-made skills with which to break through it; skills which are not natural to most professionals. If well selected he is motivated to grow through helping others help themselves, thereby developing self respect and a sense of dignity along with new skill. He knows how to tap the potential enthusiasm in the neighborhood as long as his enthusiasm about the effectiveness of the program remains high and his role is relatively clear. He speaks a language which is direct, concrete, and pithy. It corresponds to the informal, spontaneous, concrete, action-oriented style of behaving which is more a part of the poor culture than it is middle-class.

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*Gertrude Goldberg, Nonprofessional Helpers: The Visiting Homemakers, in G.A. Brager and F.P. Purcell, Editors, Community Action Against Poverty, College and University Press, New Haven, Connecticut, 1967.

An illustration of the subprofessional's style which has become classic is given by George Brager, who describes a neighborhood meeting led by a worker.*

> ...Although they were wrestling with problems resulting from serious housing violations, there was laughter and gaiety; although much business was conducted, there was no formal meeting. Aside from the informality, nonprofessionals tend more often to be 'directive', 'active' and 'partisan'. Cursory analysis of their records further supports the conclusion that the nonprofessionals tend to provide active direction, for the reports reveal that they 'decided', 'announced' and 'insisted'. This differs sharply from professional recording, in which workers are more likely to 'suggest' and 'enable'. The nonprofessional was in the center of activity, exhorting her 'clients', training by demonstration and providing direction.

The skills, knowledge, and style which the subprofessional brings with him to training will have to be protected from a number of influences which can have a destructive influence on them. The qualities need to be recognized by the staff as valuable and the ways in which they are useful to the program should continually be pointed out and developed in training and supervision. When subprofessional actions are at odds with agency policies or practices, discussion of the desired changes ought to include the workers and allow role-played practice of the new approach.

The indigenous subprofessional needs help in developing and defining his new identity as a middle-man between the agency professionals and the community participants. His is a difficult role. It is one which he is creating as he goes along and he will need all the support and guidance he can get. He may have a tendency to become superficially identified with the middle-class professionals. This can result in distortion of his relationship with the clients and loss of certain of his skills in practice.

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*Brager, George, The Low Income Nonprofessional, paper presented at National Conference on Social Welfare, May 1964.

His identity should develop from the success of his experience in training, in the field, and within the agency. The professionals with whom he works will have to help him find this role through training, supervision, and evaluation of him as well as of themselves as they interrelate with him.

The extent to which he and his colleagues are heard and given recognition as a group with different, but integrated and valuable roles to play as part of an agency team, will assure an easier role identification for the subprofessional. His ideas should be heard. He should feel he can communicate freely with staff members. His informality and life style should be blended with the agency's and professionals' style and allowed expression whenever possible. He should feel free to ask questions when he has them and feel secure and knowledgeable enough to know when they should be asked. Security can be provided by the feeling of coherence of the individual worker with his group. This has been emphasized by many programs as a technique which can be initiated during selection through the use of group interviews. Supervision may be both group and individual. Some programs have assigned the subprofessionals to work in groups in the field where that was possible. In other programs they have been paired.

His job definition should be clearly conceived and secure. As his role develops, changes in the definition of his work may become obvious and seem practical. Such flexibility should be allowed, but wherever possible, he should be brought into discussions about the changes in his job description. Orientation to the program and agency should be thorough and clear. It should allow personal contact with the staff and make clear their roles in relation to the trainees. Trainees should be encouraged to raise basic questions during the orientation session.

Limitations

What generalizations have been formed about the limitations of indigenous subprofessionals which affect their work negatively? Can these be changed through training and administrative procedures without harming him or his effectiveness?

The training experience of the Institute for Youth Studies at Howard has produced a list of potential limitations found among their trainees recruited from the poor.* Of course, this is a list which is composite and generalized. Each trainee differs from another in particular strengths and weaknesses and in the degree to which he possesses each quality.

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*Denham, Felsenfeld, Walker, op. cit., p. 14 and 15.

...He has been emotionally and intellectually alienated from the broader community. If Negro, he has a poor sense of the history of the Negro as a people, and himself as a part of that history.

...He distrusts all sources of conventional strength and power, and for good reasons. This distrust is a coping mechanism for the individual, but it leads to distrust of groups of his fellow man, and he therefore shuns group activity as a mode of strength and power.

...He has pervasive anxiety about social action, about risking himself without a definite assurance that he will be completely supported by authority.

...He may "feel for" his fellow man, but hasn't found it worth his while to ally himself with them. He has a "do for" rather than a "do with" attitude toward help. He senses magic rather than purpose in strategy.

...He has a profound sense of self-doubt.

...He so hates those who have moved ahead that he feels their progress could only have been based on fraud or pure luck. He becomes desperately anxious when faced with a competitive situation.

...Because he has to guard so carefully against the "exploiters" in order to survive, he has to a degree identified with that role model from constant anxiety and attention directed toward its source.

...Faced with a struggle for survival that has taken every second and ounce of wit, he has had little time for thinking as opposed to responding. This response strategy makes individual day-to-day survival possible, but it rarely leads to development of socio-political institutions capable of sustained action.

This list may differ from others presented in terms of the intensity of the statements; nor is the compilation necessarily complete. We believe that the IYS training programs successfully avoided "creaming" in their selection of trainees and did, in fact, work with more of the very poor in contrast to those who were already upward bound.

It is important to take some risks in selecting trainees. To identify latent intelligence and ability is not always easy, but it should be attempted. The very poor should be included as potential candidates for training. There are many of them who have proved that they can make immense leaps toward self development if given the chance. A training group which consists of a mixture of some of the upward bound as well as the very poor is feasible. The National Committee on Employment of Youth's demonstration training project selected such groups, using basic ability, talent and motivation for the work, and native intelligence (not formal education) as their interviewing criteria.

Training should be structured and given in such a way that each of the areas of limitation noted are dealt with. For instance, some basis for a knowledge of minority group history should be provided. A consultant might be used. The staff as well as the trainees might be interested in the list of books on Negro history provided at the end of this document.*

A secure grounding in community organization techniques, running a meeting, and techniques for achieving social action should be provided in classroom and on-the-job training. The staff members should always be sure that they are with, close to, and behind the subprofessional in each of these areas. Preparation for each action by subprofessionals should be thorough and complete in the early stages. Role playing will help. Presentations by experienced workers (professional or subprofessional) is essential.

The "do for" rather than "do with" attitude toward giving help, cited by the IYS staff, directly conflicts with the description of the performance of the Mobilization For Youth homemakers. Their success was in large part attributed to the fact that they "did with." Although we cannot be sure, it may be that this discrepancy between the two groups is due in part to the extent of their previous deprivation. It may also be a factor attributable to differences in age and sex. The homemakers were older women who had for years accepted responsibility for the welfare of their families. The IYS trainees may not have lived as intensive a helping role in real life before training. The important thing is that teaching by "doing with" is an integral aspect of the neighborhood worker's role and one cause of his success. To develop this ability where it is lacking, training, staff inter-action, and supervision must find a way of showing the value of such a technique by example, by discussion, and through practicing it in professional-subprofessional relationships.

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*Lists of resources concerning the culture and history of minority groups are available through the American Library Association, the Anti-Defamation League, and the Office of Education's ERIC system libraries.

The poor self-image which is prevalent among many of the trainees has a number of ramifications which will interfere with their development. They need to learn to see where they really are in relation to their knowledge, job, the program, and performance. To do this they must learn to trust those who have hired them, are training them, and giving supervision. They have to be able to hear criticism. The security of the group will help. The freedom to speak honestly to the trainer and with consultants and supervisors without fear of being seriously misunderstood or fired is essential. They will test their position in relation to the professionals and should be allowed to do so. This will be difficult for those being tested and emphasizes the importance of selecting the right people as trainers, supervisors, and consultants. They should be extremely secure and flexible people who know the work they are presenting and who do not have underlying rigidity or punitiveness. They must be able to "hold their own" with fairness, warmth, strength, and objectivity.

As training progresses and the subprofessional has had an opportunity to both role play some of his work and to practice it on the job, his realization that success is not a matter of pure luck alone will develop. Problems should be brought up for discussion and some of the anger allowed out. The fact that subprofessionals do not learn as well under pressure or in an anxiety-producing situation has been noted by a number of training programs. An atmosphere of controlled permissiveness which is securely structured and provides mutual trust and respect between the trainer and the group is very important.

Presumably the trainees who have become over-identified with the "exploiters" as a technique for survival and functioning will have been culled out during the selection process. However, in making these highly subjective value judgments, the staff should not avoid taking risks with applicants who have had experiences as exploiters, but appear to have grown beyond them, or who show a strong potential for growing beyond them. A sincere desire to help improve the neighborhood should be apparent. During training, ways of dealing with "exploiters" in the community will have to come up for discussion and the views of the trainees will have to be aired.

The trainer will develop group discussion techniques which lead the subprofessional from freedom of response (a quality to be retained) to the additional development of reflection and listening skills. Discussion skills (albeit heated) as compared to purely impulsive interaction will have to be given attention and practiced by the workers as discussion is one of the basic techniques necessary to successful work in the community.

As noted earlier, the strengths and limitations of the trainees noted by one training program may differ from those of another. This is partly due to the target group from which the candidates are sought. Also, it is the result of the selection criteria and of an agency's job description.

Learning Styles

Do subprofessionals have learning styles which are identifiable and to which training and supervision can be attuned?

There is agreement among training groups that indigenous trainees benefit more from certain ways of learning than from others. The atmosphere within which their growth takes place is important as well. The Lincoln Hospital training staff has reported a condensation of learning styles.*

...physical and visual rather than aural

...content centered rather than form centered

...externally oriented rather than introspective

...problem centered rather than abstract centered

...inductive rather than deductive

...spatial rather than temporal (affecting the time perspective)

...slow, careful, patient, persevering (in areas of importance) rather than quick, clever, facile

...games and action versus tests

...expressive versus instrumental orientation

...one track thinking and unorthodox learning rather than "other directed" flexibility

...words in relation to action rather than word bound (inventive word power and "hip" language)

Provision for these and other styles of learning, which are common to people for whom the usual educational approach has not been effective, are made in training and should have been kept in mind during preparatory discussions with the staff. It is important that the subprofessionals not be "put down" or constantly "turned off" by anyone with whom they are working because they use styles which may differ from those which the professionals use. At the same time, as training and experience progress, the subprofessional should be able to expand his style to include elements which it has previously lacked.

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*Lincoln Hospital Training Manual I, op. cit.

In general, training will consist of a flexible structure which includes a variety of experiences. It will not be fully didactic although a formal presentation of some material is viable. Discussion methods, role playing, and other involvement and action-oriented techniques will be used. The techniques and models which have proved most effective are described in the final section, "Training Rationale and Activities."

The maintenance of an informal and open atmosphere is important for supervision and training. When training takes place within a CAA and integrated into the agency's functioning, the creation of a less bureaucratic and formal atmosphere, even beyond the training program per se, has been used to support the subprofessional's styles of relating (and learning informally). This is not to say that practices which are consistent with good administration or social work techniques need to be threatened. One attempt to achieve a more open atmosphere throughout the agency as a whole is described by a member of the professional staff of the Mobilization For Youth project supervising indigenous homemakers.* The office was an informal one located in an apartment house which had been planned and decorated by the subprofessionals.

> If the indigenous character of a service is to be retained, it must be administered less formally and bureaucratically than many social-work programs. Not that we failed to develop forms and procedures consistent with good practice. As much as possible, however, we let the homemakers set the pace and determine the atmosphere of the center. The supervisors seldom sat behind desks or closed doors and were accessible to homemakers for spot conferences, success stories, and 'emergencies'. Neighborhood persons, both workers and clients, chatted and gossiped in the office. It was the professional staff rather than the indigenous people who felt like outsiders.

The extent to which and way in which each agency can accommodate the various styles of the subprofessional within its framework will differ.

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*Gertrude Goldberg, op. cit., p. 198.

In the New Haven, Conn., Training Program the aides and professionals created a free atmosphere. This is in large part due to the leadership of the training program and is specifically supported by the fact that aides serve as co-trainers along with professionals. At Lincoln Hospital the first group of mental health workers in training were asked to help plan the Neighborhood Service Centers which were being established.

The staff of each community action agency can consider its own attitudes toward these suggestions and attempt to achieve some accommodation for the subprofessionals. If successful, it follows that the rapport between the agency staff and members of the community will be enhanced as the agency reaches out.

Attitude Change

Do subprofessionals, once hired and working, tend to change their attitudes toward their neighbors? What seems to affect this?

The identity problem of new neighborhood workers may be difficult to reconcile in situations which require them, along with the agency, to create their role as they go along without the help of previous "role models." One question which has been asked again and again is whether the subprofessional will tend to feel and act in a way which separates him from his neighbors once he has begun to serve in the role of liaison or bridge between the community and the CAA.

If he is helped to retain many aspects of his style and to use them successfully as an integral part of his work, the average subprofessional should continue to be able to relate to his neighbors with ease. For example, the style of subprofessionals often includes a directive element which might be interpreted by the middle-class professional as unnecessarily authoritarian. However, more often than not, if the worker knows his related skills and has an accurate understanding of the problem with which he is dealing, his directive style works. The tendency among many social workers is to avoid a directive approach.

Anyone serving in a role which is essentially that of a middle-man is vulnerable to pressures from both sides. Hence, it is very important that the subprofessional be supported should anger be directed at him from the community. This can happen if something goes seriously wrong with a major aspect of the CAA program which can be attributable to him or to the agency. If the mistake is his, of course he must learn from it. However, to do so he has to be able to disentangle himself from the heat and the fury it may have generated and look at it in a larger perspective. If the fault is not entirely his, this should be made clear to all concerned and his image in the community as a subprofessional middle-man given support. He should take part in righting any mistakes which have been made and be involved in working out next steps or alternative plans. An articulate neighborhood worker from Washington, D.C., replied to a question about how he felt in relation to his neighbors now that he was on the way up, saying: "I moved away from my home. I dress differently now. But, I'm still attached to those feelings and ideas. When my salary is $10,000 to $15,000 a year then, perhaps, I would answer differently."

Role Conflict

What tendencies toward role conflict - who am I - what should I represent - appear repeatedly? Have some new approaches to working in the community helped ameliorate role confusion on the part of the neighborhood worker?

The conflict which the new subprofessional feels about accepting professionals as co-workers with a different, but related, role is an area of difficulty which every training project has reported. The subprofessional may either be hostile or over-identify with his more middle-class colleagues. Handled openly, this cause of conflict can be resolved in various degrees during training, supervision, and through staff preparation.

Another cause of confusion to the subprofessional worker springs from the way his job as a bridge or middle-man is defined and his training structured in his relationship to it. Demonstration projects suggest that the usual practice of training neighborhood workers first to extend services and later to organize the poor around their expressed needs actually causes the workers to suffer from greater role confusion and, in the long run, to be less effective as representatives of the poor.*

Subprofessionals like to extend services and do it well when properly trained. However, they seem to find it more difficult, when moving into the next role, to perform the community organization function and thus "cover more territory" with as much work. The demonstration training staff felt that this might be caused in part by the workers' dislike for and distrust of groups, their unfamiliarity with groups, and the greater difficulty of learning community organization skills.

The neighborhood workers' confusion grew from the fact that there is a difference between being a social broker and an organizer in a neighborhood. The neighborhood saw the aides as an extension of on-going services which had not achieved many major changes. The "big daddy" identification was often given them. When it came time to add the organizational role, the neighborhood residents were not always receptive. The community was not clear about the differences between the two functions nor were the workers sure of how to perform in the new role. The workers often had a sense of split loyalty and confusion about who to represent and how. Whether they were members of the community or extensions of the agency was the basic issue.

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* Denham, Felsenfeld, Walker, The Neighborhood Worker, op. cit., pp 16-27

The IYS staff experimented with a new role definition, attached to a different sequence and emphasis in training. First the aides were told of certain clearly defined services which the agency would perform, and which could be firmly promised to individual groups in the community. Then they were trained as community organizers. Working closely with an agency team and with the community, they identified the needs which were most immediate, basic, and would involve neighborhood groups in the action. The issues around which the people were organized were concrete rather than idealistic.

This concept for training subprofessionals for community work corresponds in some respects to thinking about new curriculum for training professional community organizers in social work. Service specialization is de-emphasized and replaced by a problem-centered, wholistic approach. Mobilization For Youth developed a somewhat similar design in practice. In a multi-problem situation one of the professionals worked as a generalist who could call upon a team of consultant specialists (such as lawyers, doctors, etc.) when needed.*

> The idea which MFY has advanced is that the social worker can best fulfill his professional function and agency rsponsibility by addressing social problems directly, in an attempt to bring about institutional change, rather than focusing on individual problems in social functioning. This is not to say that individual expressions of a given social problem should be unattended.

The individual problems were not ignored, but were used to find and change the more basic causes on a larger scale.

Some programs have recruited neighborhood workers for two different kinds of jobs: one dealing with direct service, and the other with community organization. For example, Lincoln Hospital selected some aides to work on a one-to-one basis with clients, and others to do a more group-oriented kind of work. Mobilization For Youth, on the other hand, assigned its homemakers strictly on the basis of their service skills; however, this was reflected in their selection procedures, job descriptions, training, and supervision. The aides had a clear picture of their roles because they had been defined as part of overall agency policy. A careful definition by the agency of how it wishes to operate in the community is necessary before consideration can be given to where and how the subprofessionals are to be employed.

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* Purcell and Specht, Selecting Methods and Points of Intervention in Dealing with Social Problems: The House on Sixth Street, in Brager and Purcell, op. cit., pp 240-241.

Experimental approaches such as those just described require a staff able to, and interested in, carrying them out. They require careful planning as well as innovative problem solving. We hope that some of these experiments will suggest fresh ideas in the community action field which may be feasible for your agency to consider.

The role conflicts of the subprofessional are partly due to his changing status. They are also caused by the dynamic fabric of the program within which he is functioning. When the residents of the poor community can see that the agency's program is "hearing" their needs, and when they and the agency can cooperate in a unified effort to achieve change, the new subprofessional may find himself experiencing less negative pressure from both sides. The major pressures will, instead, be allocated to all three elements -- the agency, the subprofessionals, and the community -- and will come from those power systems and structures which may be threatened by the proposed improvements and change within the community.

Effect on Staff

Does the presence of subprofessionals on the staff have a noticeable effect upon the rest of the staff, the program, and the way of working? How can it become a positive contribution?

If the CAA plans well for the subprofessionals as a permanent addition to the staff, there will be noticeable changes among the staff and even within the program and structure of the agency. If not, the subprofessionals can be attached to present programs without much change. A slice of someone's job can be carved off and the neighborhood worker trained to do it. This is the most cautious, least innovative and, perhaps, safest approach. It does not always result in the best use of the subprofessionals. Nor does it allow the kind of re-thinking which is described in the preceeding section.

Wherever adequate planning for subprofessional training has been done, either in education, medicine, social work or in an interdisciplinary setting, a number of things have happened:

The subprofessionals were encouraged to express themselves in their own style about the issues in which they were involved. Efforts to communicate were made by both subprofessionals and professionals which resulted in greater interaction. Subprofessionals often requested and were given the opportunity to participate in training new groups of workers, or to be involved in the selection process. They served as first-hand judges, with professionals, of competency and as role models for the new workers.

The training of subprofessionals was not considered a temporary necessity, but a new, integral, and on-going part of the entire agency program. A spirit of involvement and cohesiveness with the agency and community can be seen in programs which have successfully developed the kind of approach to training subprofessionals here described. Its development was not magic, nor instant. A great deal of planning and re-planning was required. It was fraught with disagreements and delays, frustration and annoyance. But the results were very often worthwhile.

> An indigenous staff can be an invaluable part of a social agency's efforts to help low-income clients, provided that the agency appreciates and knows how to realize their potentiality. Untrained neighborhood workers are sometimes regarded as poor substitutes for professionals, hired because of a shortage of funds and trained staff. Consequently, the goal of supervision, training, and administration may be to make them as "professional" as possible. The aim is sometimes to teach them without learning from them. (Of course, they must be oriented to agency and social work goals as well as freed, if possible, of social attitudes and actions which are clearly hostile and damaging to clients.)*

The degree and kind of influence which subprofessionals will have on the staff and its way of working will depend upon the basic program and training plans of the CAA. For instance, if the agency places more emphasis on community organization to reach the basic causes of structural poverty in the neighborhood, the entire program, including subprofessionals being trained and working in this area, will be affected. Even if an agency does not visualize this kind of effort as important, the integration of neighborhood workers into the staff will have an influence on staff and program, but it will be of a different kind.

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* Goldberg, Gertrude, op. cit., p 206.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF TRAINEES

In this section thought is given to recruitment procedures and to some of the qualifications and characteristics to be sought among applicants for subprofessional training as neighborhood workers. The experience of a variety of demonstration community action training programs is synthesized to consider the following questions:

.....What is the sequence of steps which may be followed in recruiting candidates? How much time should be given to recruitment? What are some of the best places to look for applicants?

.....What attitudes and motivation should be sought in applicants and how are they identified?

.....How much education should you require of the trainees?

.....Are men or women better suited to work as neighborhood workers?

.....How important is the aide's age? Do older or younger trainees perform equally well on the job?

.....How should you interpret some of the traditionally negative elements in the candidate's background as indications of his potential for success as a neighborhood aide?

.....Can some further generalizations be made about individual characteristics which tend to predict success for the applicant?

.....What content can be included in a guide for the interviewer?

Recruitment

What is the sequence of steps which may be followed in recruiting candidates? How much time should be given to recruitment? What are some of the best places to look for applicants?

As an outgrowth of the pre-planning, described in the first section, the agency should have a clear idea of the job for which it is hiring and training neighborhood workers. Naturally, the initial thinking about the aides' role will change somewhat as a result of experience. Nonetheless, the job description should be considered a kind of promise to the candidates selected about their salary, training, and work which is realistic, and can be kept. It can be used for recruitment purposes or a shorter version may be developed for distribution throughout the neighborhood.

The longer job description should include such items as:

.....Job Title. Will the candidates be described as neighborhood or community aides, workers, assistants or, by some other title? The status factor inherent in a title is meaningful to some. Does the agency intend to list the neighborhood workers as subprofessionals, nonprofessionals, paraprofessionals? This may be important for career advancement through on-the-job training, supervision, and later, opportunity for additional training as it may be needed.

.....Duties. A description, in detail, of the types of work and specific tasks to which the aide will be assigned and for which he is being trained should be developed by the agency staff. For instance, will some aides be serving mainly as liaison between the agency and the residents, providing information and arranging for services on an individual basis? Will a part of the group be doing organizational work in the community, surveying its needs and attempting to organize the residents to make needed changes? Will some of the aides be working mainly in the CAP offices as assistants to a particular staff member, and what will be their duties? What basic skills will be needed for each of these functions?

.....Training. The curriculum of the training program should be described to include the schedule, length of training, and training experiences. Whether the aide will be paid his full salary during training should be noted.

.....Supervision. Arrangements for on-the-job supervision can be described, including its purposes: as a part of the entire training model, as an aspect of on-going training, as a means of establishing liaison between the professional staff and the subprofessionals.

.....Selection Criteria. The requirements which the staff has decided upon should be listed. Minimally these would include an age range, language skills, any foreign language requirements, health, and sex. Other data might include employment experiences, avocational interests, area of residence, etc. The more basic of these criteria are discussed in the section on selection.

.....Salary, Increments, Hours of Employment, Place of Employment, and Job Benefits. The starting salary and schedule of increments, including qualifications and and timing, should be given. If the work will require irregular hours, that should be noted and, if overtime is to be requested from time to time, whether the aides will be paid for it is important. An estmmate of the amount of time to be spent in various field locations or in the CAA office itself should be made. A list of paid holidays, allowances for vacations and medical or health insurance can be included.

From the job description a brief announcement may be prepared for distribution in the community, as mentioned earlier. This should contain clear, but concise information about the prospective employer (name, address, and function, where necessary), the job title and description of the responsibilities, the training program (including schedule, content, duration), salary, hours of employment, and benefits, and basic criteria (including special interests and abilities) preferred of applicants.

Distribution of the flyers should be made throughout the community--particularly in laundromats, gas stations, drug stores, grocery stores, bars, movie theatres, churches and community centers, etc. Additional distribution, depending upon the community, can be made through the mass media--the local newspaper, radio station, or television station. A public service announcement can be developed for this purpose. The social agencies which serve a large number of the poor residents of the community might be given copies of the job analysis and flyers and asked to suggest applicants. They may also be requested to provide preliminary comments about those whom they refer.

If possible, about a month should be allowed for recruitment. You will want more applicants than there are openings for trainees to give you a wider range of choice. You may have to work harder to obtain male applicants and time should be allowed for this.

A brief application form can be completed by applicants, providing the most basic information: name, sex, address, telephone number, social security number, birth date, place of birth, citizenship, health, marital status, number of dependents, family composition, ethnicity (if legal and important in relationship to population being served), present employment status, how long unemployed and why, work history and types of work, highest level of education completed, military service, foreign languages (if valid for population being served).

Selection Criteria

Interviews may be individual, using a guide similar to that provided on page 55, Sample Interview Schedule. Or, they may be small group interviews. Some training programs have indicated that the latter provide a better setting within which to assess the candidates. Some have employed both types of interviews, depending on need and staff skills. The group interview allows the interviewer/group leader to observe applicants in a group situation--a model which is similar to that used in core training. The group setting tends to relax those being interviewed. It is important that the person conducting a group interview be sensitive to and have an understanding of both individual and group process, individual and group behavior.

Each program will have to develop its own selection criteria, based upon its needs, location, community problems, and CAA policies, but we hope the following guidelines will prove helpful.

Attitudes and Motivation

What attitudes and motivation should be sought in applicants and how are they identified?

It is more useful to look for candidate's readiness to develop the skills, techniques, and behavior necessary for him to function successfully as a neighborhood aide than to attempt to list attitudes to be sought in applicants for training. However, it may be valid to discuss this area briefly in terms of the ideals which are of concern during selection and are, hopefully, available in varying degrees after training.

It has been said that often people help other people because they really want to be helped themselves. Surely there is some truth in this statement--even, at times, a great deal of truth--but, standing alone, it is far too cynical. It is also emphatically true that man is a social creature and, being so, needs the give and take of companionship, support, and guidance shared with others while growing up and even through adulthood. People need people in different ways at various times during their lives.

The sickness, poverty, loneliness, and alienation of many people in our present culture, particularly in some large cities, but also in suburban and rural areas, is more proof of the destructive quality of separation and lack of trust, communication, friendship, warmth and closeness. Those people who are concerned about the welfare of other individuals and groups--those who are intelligent, kind, responsible, considerate, and strong enough to provide help, the people to whom others turn for help--are the ones who make the best candidates for training in the helping services at all levels.

How do you identify this kind of person? Some are more easily identified than others. Look, for instance, at the history of their community activities, their attitudes toward community institutions, their concern for individuals. This information can be obtained from the initial application forms and during interviews. A history of participation in some community activities may indicate motivation and interest in working with others. Often, however, the youth of an applicant or lack of opportunity to become involved in such work will require the interviewer to assess this potential by asking other types of questions from which he can make deductions. During the course of an interview, lasting for approximately an hour or more, candidates whose history of activities in the community and with individuals may not already have pinpointed them as good potential trainees should be discernible to an interviewer from those who simply do not have the concern or a strong enough interest in developing it. Among the clues which an interviewer can use to evaluate the candidate's attitudes toward working in this field are the tone of voice used in reply to certain questions (some of which are included in the sample interview forms), the degree of pleasure and understanding expressed when a candidate talks about various individuals or groups with whom he or she is involved, and the questions a candidate asks about the job of a neighborhood worker.

The quality and source of these replies should also be assessed. The person who needs to be a helper too much, the one who can't let go or change the helping relationship once the assistance has been provided, the person who needs to retain a position of authority over the client or group, not because the situation demands it but simply because of his own needs, is not really helping--he is controlling and manipulating others to meet his own needs. An indication of some of these traits may be sought during the interview and raised then, briefly, to assess the ability of the candidate to look honestly at these attitudes later during training, and allow them to be changed if necessary. The interviewer will want to be flexible in judging the candidate's feelings and views, based upon his own ability to see the need for a wide range of different types of behavior among the aides. Also, few trainees will come to training without the need for some change in their attitudes.

Whenever groups of people who have had different experiences and opportunities join forces to work together, adjustments must be made, efforts at mutual understanding attempted...and each group must accommodate itself somewhat in the views, attitudes, and needs of the other without losing sight of the work goals. When candidates for training as neighborhood aides are hired by an established community action agency, a certain amount of confusion, conflict, misunderstanding, and resentment is very likely to occur among both the aides and the staff. The staff must be prepared for this. The interviewer who is responsible for providing the first introduction of the candidates to the agency must be prepared for this and be able to make judgments about the applicants' strengths and weaknesses in relation to it.

The new trainee may be--probably will be--scared. This job opportunity may be his best chance so far "to succeed;" to make something of a life which appears to have been little more than an accumulation of failures. The trainee may feel that if he fails again the result could be a serious disaster for him. And, well it could be. This may be the best opportunity he has ever had to pull himself out of the morass of poverty, prejudice and failure. The agency staff, selection committee, trainer and supervisors should make every effort to provide the best opportunity possible.

Some trainees' fear may be expressed as arrogance, or just as a wall which at first seems impenetrable. And, among some, there will be blatant anger. The trainees will also struggle to find out just where they belong in the agency; who will listen to them; how the structure and formal operation of the agency affects them, and how they function within it. They will very likely be confused about the difference between their role and that of the various professionals and may feel that, in so far as they know the poor, they are better qualified to make judgments about them, their problems, needs, and abilities.

The applicants for training as neighborhood aides have been locked out of our society and have suffered indignities at every level of existence--personal, family, community, economic, social, and cultural. Many aides will probably see the professionals with whom they will be relating, on the one hand as members of the majority group responsible for their suffering and, on the other hand, as people who can help them develop the skills and abilities to succeed as individuals. The professionals will have to emphasize the latter role without becoming either patronizing, too threatened, or too controlling when resisted or challenged. Nor should the professionals become pawns for unreasonable anger on the part of an aide or allow role confusion and competition to go unresolved. The wise professional realizes that there are things to be learned from the subprofessionals, even when they are trainees. The learning process in the classroom, within the framework of supervision, and in the field is never oneway when it is working at its best levels. Nor does it operate mainly or only on an intellectual level. It is a mixture and rhythm of feeling and thinking, of talking and listening, of give and take. It requires on the part of everyone concerned great honesty and wisdom.

In terms of selection, it requires that those responsible have a clear picture of both "where the agency is" in terms of program, policies, strengths and weaknesses which will help or hinder the aides to develop their skills and attitudes. It also demands that those responsible for selection have the sensitivity to assess each applicant's strengths and weaknesses, potential, and underlying attitudes in relation to agency needs and training opportunities.

The neighborhood workers' role will have to include for the aide an understanding of community development as a three-pronged effort of the professionals, subprofessionals, and residents of the area working together. The stronger an applicant's understanding of community problems, the better the quality of his commitment to improvement of the community, the finer his ability to listen to and combine different points of view without undue confusion, the less likely will he be to suffer the extreme forms of role confusion. Most candidates for training from the poor community will have certain prejudicial attitudes toward the professional staff. In addition, alongside their positive identification with the residents of the community, many applicants will also harbor strong negative feelings toward some of the people who share their lives, their race and other aspects of the "culture of poverty." The change in role from citizen in the community to citizen and subprofessional can reinforce these negative attitudes unless the training staff is sensitive to the possibility and works with the problem.

In selecting trainees the agency will want to note the quality and intensity of the views of applicants toward each of the groups of people with whom he will be in close contact as a neighborhood aide. Weighing what is found in these areas against the entire picture of each candidate and considering whether the training program and on-going in-service support and education will be able to affect any desired change should be an essential part of the selection process.

How much education should you require of the trainees?

Trainees who have had a high school education or even a few years of college do not always prove to be the best candidates for training as neighborhood workers. Nor should they ideally be the only candidates if the poor with little formal education, but the natural intelligence, motivation, and attitudes appropriate to become neighborhood workers, are to be given an opportunity. Often people who stopped attending school as early as the 6th or 7th grade are as highly motivated to succeed--and sometimes more highly motivated, as there is more unrealized potential--than those with more education who have also been frustrated by prejudice and poverty. Education per se should not be the major criteria for selection of trainees. Look beyond it if you possibly can. Some of the places and ways to look beyond are discussed later in this section.

The National Committee on Employment of Youth's demonstration training project required only that trainees be capable of speaking openly and have sufficient reading and writing competence to take brief notes and read what little written material was used in the training program. Most communication of information was verbal, taped, or filmed. Those trainees with limitations in reading and writing were given remedial help by the trainer and other members of the trainee group. Remediation need not be a serious problem. Some resources are suggested in the Addenda.

If your agency wants to include some candidates who are illiterate but have strong potential for the work of a neighborhood aide, you might consider having them use a dictaphone or tape recorder in lieu of writing reports and taking notes at the very outset. In the meantime, you and selected trainees, or someone in the community or school should be enlisted to help them learn to read.

People who are illiterate because their education has failed them or because they have never been exposed to language skills teaching, often speak with ease and accuracy. They may not use the "middle class" or professional's language, but a language which is well suited to their work and which they share with most other trainees. They can learn enough of the language of the professional staff and the terms of the field of community organization during training to communicate with the professionals. The professionals may learn and perhaps adopt some of their terms, not purposely, but as a natural and authentic result of the experience of communicating. Certainly, they will become accustomed to the subprofessionals' style of speech.

Many training programs have purposely selected some or all of their trainees from the group which has had very little formal education. Others have shied away from them.

On the whole, candidates representing the very poor who have had too little education but have been successfully selected because they exhibited strong natural abilities for success in this area have been excellent trainees and successful neighborhood workers when training has met their needs.

Are men or women better suited to work as neighborhood workers?

Reports of various training programs indicate that both men and women perform well as neighborhood workers. Certainly, men will be able to deal more naturally with some of the job tasks and women with others. Common sense will dictate these differences, if a question of the safety of the women is concerned, they might be assigned to work in teams. Most training programs have tried to hire a relatively equal number of men and women. Both groups usually have a sufficiently qualified number of representatives who need jobs, and a mixed group of aides appears to be preferable as a functioning unit. However, you may have to make a special effort to recruit men. The pay for a neighborhood worker is usually low and is less likely to attract men. Often, the opportunity for further learning, job security, and advancement has not been planned by the community action agency. Both of these areas should be given careful thought by the staff during planning. The type of work which is described will also have an affect on the number of men who apply. The "action aspect" of an aide's work in the community should be clearly spelled out as it is reported to be more appealing to the average male subprofessional.

How Important is the Aide's Age? Do Older or Younger Trainees Perform Equally Well on the Job?

The NCEY experimental training project chose trainees whose ages ranged from 22 through 60. The Institute for Youth Studies at Howard University selected trainees whose ages ranged from 16 to 65, although some of their training and projects were specifically programmed for the younger candidates. The Lincoln Hospital Training Program of the Albert Einstein College of Medicine trained aides from 21 through 72 years of age for work in their community mental health centers and in the clinical facilities. Essentially there was no serious difference in motivation, attitude, or ability to learn and perform the work for which the aides were hired which could be traced primarily to the age factor.

Decisions concerning the age limitations applied in selecting aides could include: Are some of the people with whom the aides will be working quite old or very young? Would the work with these people be enhanced if the aides could identify better because of their age? Who are the people among the applicants who most need an opportunity to work and to learn? Will that be a major criterion? Are there equal opportunities for some of your applicants in other training programs which have different age requirements and do you want to include these groups as compensation? Programs rely on criteria pertinent to their particular situation. Lincoln Hospital aimed for a balance in the ages with slight emphasis on including the younger and the older applicants, possibly because of the nature of the services being provided to the community and the greater severity of problems among the very young and the older population.

Negative Elements

How should you interpret some of the traditionally negative elements in the candidate's background as indications of his potential for success as a neighborhood aide?

Should a very uneven job history be considered indicative of irresponsible attitudes which might infringe upon the success of the candidate? Should a criminal record automatically eliminate the candidate? Should a record of narcotic addiction be an inflexible eliminator of the applicant? Should the CAA risk considering a candidate whose court case is pending?

There are few poor and under-educated people whose records will not show an uneven job history. It is, more often than not, an integral part of the poverty picture. Probably many, if not most of your candidates for training have had a large number of short-term jobs during their working lives. Therefore, learn to expect employment records which would be considered unstable in those who have not lived in poverty. And, don't be surprised if the applicant is bitter, frightened, or displays a defeatist attitude toward work. A certain cynicism is very often present. Training and work with the staff and in the community can help aides to change these attitudes through making success possible and security a reality.

Whether a criminal record should be cause for elimination of a candidate ought to be considered case by case, whenever possible. The NCEY training program did not eliminate candidates for training automatically because they had a past court record. NCEY's policy was to ignore a criminal record prior to the age of 16 and to consider only convictions, not arrests, after 16 years of age. Applicants who had been convicted of crimes were never automatically rejected, however. Four main criteria were used to evaluate them: (1) An applicant was considered in terms of what his situation was when interviewed rather than in terms of a past "blot on his record." This required that he or she be compared with other candidates on as equal a basis as possible; (2) Such a candidate's present maturity was assessed as was that of other applicants. In particular, attention was given to motivation, sincerity, and, of course, his qualifications for this particular type of work; (3) The circumstances of the crimes in which he had been a participant were discussed with him and both the facts and the applicant's feelings about them were evaluated as objectively as possible; (4) All of this information was then discussed by the selection committee to answer the questions which were considered most basic. Would this particular candidate disrupt training by having an adverse affect on the other trainees? Would this particular candidate fit the criteria for selection being applied to other trainees?

During the interview the applicant should be told the agency policy about a criminal record. The NCEY interviewers indicated, when asking about this part of the candidate's history, that it would not automatically be considered grounds for rejection. Greater honesty on the part of applicants was the result.

NCEY's experience and that of other training programs indicates that an unprejudiced and intelligent approach on the part of the agency to the selection of trainees who have been convicted of crimes can result in inclusion of fully able candidates who have the ability and deserve the opportunity to become effective neighborhood aides. A criminal record in an applicant's background should not be, of itself, grounds for rejection.

On the other hand, the CAA will want to give serious consideration to its policy concerning the selection of applicants who are awaiting trial. Not only are cases often continued for an extended period of time (depending upon the court situation in each area), but if the trainee is convicted, the agency risks losing the investment it has made in training him. If the applicant is unusually well qualified in all other regards and inquiry indicates that conviction is unlikely, the CAA may want to take this risk.

Narcotic addiction and other forms of serious chemical addiction will inhibit a trainee both in training and on the job. It is not always possible to tell when an applicant with a history of addiction has, in fact, given it up. Medical tests are of limited value in ascertaining whether an applicant is a practicing addict, although they may be of help if given shortly following the intake of a narcotic. As this is usually impractical, the selection committee may have to accept candidates who are highly qualified otherwise but about whom there may be a question concerning present addiction. In an area where the narcotic addiction rate is high, the agency's policy should be explained to all applicants.

The interviewer's approach to the problems noted in this section should be one of informed directness, avoiding attitudes which might range from punitiveness to pity. Scrapes with the law and addiction to drugs may not be every day fare for the professional looking at his own life and culture, even though such experiences are certainly not foreign to American middle-class culture. However, the incessant failure and oppression under which the poor live cause these experiences to appear more often in the records of people who have known life in the slums and other economically deprived areas of the country. At one level the problems are seen as results of structural poverty and prejudice. At another level they must be considered as individual problems about which an agency hiring applicants who have experienced these conditions first hand must concern itself as realistically and humanely as possible.

Candidates who cannot be accepted for the program should be told as soon as possible and given a thorough and careful explanation of the reasons for rejection. If possible, efforts to help them obtain other employment or training should be made or some form of remedial help provided. A number of community action agencies have suffered serious repercussions, particularly with regard to their image in the community, when rejected applicants acted on their despair and anger.

Other Selection Criteria

Can some further generalizations be made about individual characteristics which tend to predict success for the applicant?

Since all neighborhood aides will be working with people, whether in groups or individually, there are certain qualities and abilities which stand out as important in addition to those described earlier in this section.

As noted in the material on attitudes and motivation, the higher the aide's level of interest in working with and relating to other people, the more successful the neighborhood worker seems to be. Candidates who have been relating easily and well with people in a variety of situations usually speak easily. However, a shy applicant may need only encouragement, opportunity and practice in speaking and being heard to open up and become more involved. In rural areas where trainee candidates may have lived in isolation from all but their immediate families, identification of this potential may be more difficult. However, even there, the effort to seek work as a subprofessional may, of itself, be an important indication of ability and seriousness of purpose.

The activist who has put a great deal of energy and concern into community or individual involvement is usually quite easy to identify. There would seem to be three ways to consider such a candidate. (1) Is his radicalism immovably rigid and grounded in very deep and extreme bitterness? If so, this might make it difficult for him to accept some aspects of training. If not, is his desire to achieve change and improvement through community organization sufficiently strong to allow him to look at himself in terms of the agency's approach and his relationship to it? (2) Would the agency benefit from having an intelligent activist-leader among the subprofessionals? Is the agency being too cautious? Would such a person be of help in channeling energies, stimulating creative ideas among the group, and creating more likely and freer communication? (3) To what extent is the agency willing to develop the kinds of training which can meet and use controversial issues, attitudes, and methods as content for successful training. A bright activist-trainee can be a dynamic stimulus to training as well as an effective neighborhood aide.

Outstanding neatness, poise and other superficial traits need not be given great emphasis as criteria for selection of trainees. If the candidates are presentable and capable of relating to members of the community in an effective style, those should be the more important criteria.

It would be impossible to compile a complete list of the qualities which, together, approximate the readymade ideal candidate for the job of neighborhood worker. No one person will have them all. Each agency staff must decide upon the kinds of trainees whose potentials best fit the job for which their subprofessionals are being trained. The applicants will have both strengths and weaknesses. The agency must decide whether it is willing and able to accept some candidates who might be considered risks, based upon its ability to be supportive. This support should be given during and following training. In some instances it may have to be on-going. We encourage taking some candidates who are "risks" as often they turn out to be very successful if training, supervision, and agency support are effective. The National Committee on Employment of Youth made a point of selecting some "risk" trainees, as have other training programs. These candidates were told before training began of the questions about their suitability for the program and were asked if they wanted to enter training knowing that either they would have to work to overcome the difficulties or be eliminated. They were also told about the plans of the agency to be of help. In all but one case the NCEY results were positive and, in some, successful beyond expectations.

Some guidelines to the qualities which appear to characterize the most successful candidates for training as neighborhood workers have been noted by the Institute for Youth Studies at Howard University.* They include:

...ability to relate to neighborhood people

...capable of functioning under stress

...familiar with neighborhood patterns and problems

...ability to generalize about problems and to think in terms of group solutions

...ability to improvise solutions to personal problems, and some evidence of this in the applicant's recent history

...ability to verbalize anger at having been deprived without being 'swallowed up' by his anger

...ability to identify some of the causes of the deprivation and some of the sources of power that have contributed to it

...ability to respond creatively to recognized problems and perceive the possibility of group as well as individual solutions

...ability to distinguish between the problems of the neighborhood and the people who live there; seeing the neighborhood as being a 'lousy place to live' is different from rejecting the residents as a 'bunch of useless bums'

...evidence of empathy for others who are deprived and for those who have failed in their attempts to cope with life

Five characteristics which have been identified by IYS as predictive of difficulty are:

...martyr-like statements about 'how much they have given'

...excessive self-criticism or defeatism

...excessive optimism about 'what can be done for the poor'

...name-dropping or attempts to use 'pull' to get the job

...evidence of gross mental, emotional or physical disorders

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*Denham, Felsenfeld, Walker, The Neighborhood Worker, op. cit., pp 28-29.

Tests of personality and aptitude have been tried by many training programs and discarded as inappropriate. They are conceived and standardized by, for, and with middle class people whose social, economic, cultural, and educational experiences have usually been very different from those of candidates for training as subprofessionals. The judgment of sensitive and intelligent interviewers is a far more effective instrument at present in assessing both the personal characteristics and intelligence of potential neighborhood workers than any known tests.

If you decide you must use a reading test either to prepare a curriculum for remedial skills training or to assure a minimal level of reading ability for selection purposes, you might consider the Gates Reading Survey, Form 2, Teachers College Press, N.Y. The Lincoln Hospital Training Program sets a minimal 7th grade reading level for trainees.

A sample of the applicant's writing may also be obtained for diagnostic or selection purposes. The candidates might be asked to write down some of his ideas about the community; its worst problems and his thoughts about how they might be solved. Or he might simply copy something or write what is dictated to him.

INTERVIEWING SCHEDULE

What content can be included in a guide for the interviewer?

On the following pages are a sample set of interview questions which may help each CAA develop its own guide, suited to its particular community and job description for the neighborhood workers. If an agency wants to have the candidate complete a brief application, the face sheet of the interview schedule can be used for this purpose.

Also included in the following material are an Interviewer's Check List and Interviewer's Case Summary. The former can serve as an aid to obtaining on paper the interviewer's immediate response to the applicant. It should be completed as soon as the interview is over--not while the candidate is being interviewed. The Interviewer's Case Summary may be completed next, using the Sample Interview Schedule as a resource. It provides a synthesis of the more extensive and detailed material obtained and can serve as a quick reference for the selection committee.

SAMPLE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

(Blank spaces have been omitted to conserve space)

Heading: Interviewer, Date of Interview, Place of Interview, Time Begun, Time Ended, Code Number

Face Sheet: Name, Sex, Address, Telephone Number, Social Security Number, Birth Date, Place of Birth, Citizenship, Marital Status, Number of Dependents, Family Status, Ethnicity, Employment Status, How Long Unemployed & Why, Years of Cumulative Work Experience, Highest Grade Completed, Foreign Languages

Referral Source: Agency, Individual, Posted Notice, Advertisement, etc. Comments of referring agency about applicant, if any.

Introductory Questions:

1) If you were referred by an agency or an individual, what brought you to them?

2) Can you explain why the agency or individual sent you to see us rather than to some other place? If you came on your own, explain why.

3) What have you been told about or read about our program?

Describe program, agency, training and job in detail to the applicant.

Work History:

4) What was the first job you ever had? How old were you? How did you come to take that job? Was it full-time or part-time? How long did you work there? What were your job duties? What was your salary? Why did you leave? What did you do then?

5) Starting with most recent job, describe: Type of employer (name and address if possible), dates of employment, hours of work, salary, duties, special skills, reason for leaving.

6) Of all the jobs you've had, which did you like the most? Why?

7) What kind of work would you really like to do? Why?

8) Have you ever done paid or voluntary work with an agency, group or social organization? Describe agency, dates, and duties.

9) What did you like best of all in these agencies? Why?

Education:

10) What is the highest grade in school you completed? Where? When? What kind of course did you take? Diploma or certificate? What were you preparing yourself for?

11) Have you taken any special courses or training? Where? When? Specify courses.

12) Do you intend taking any special courses or training? Where? When? Specify courses.

13) What did you like most about school?

14) Did you participate in after-school activities? What offices or positions held.

15) What didn't you like about school?

16) Why did you leave school? (If applicant failed to graduate)

17) What contacts did you have with school guidance counselors? What did they tell you?

Armed Forces:

18) Were you ever in the United States Armed Forces?

If yes: 19) Branch of Service, Dates, Highest Rank, Type of Work performed, Type of Discharge

If no: 20) What is your draft classification?

Other skills:

21) Do you have a driver's license? A car?

22) Do you use or can you operate any office machines, shop machines, hand tools, etc.? Specify

23) Besides what we've talked about, do you have any other skills? Specify

Neighborhood:

24) Will you describe the neighborhood in which you live? (Probe for type and age range of people, housing, businesses, quiet-noisy, clean-dirty, social-anti-social behavior, isolation-crowding)

25) Do you know many people in your neighborhood? How well?

26) Do most people in your neighborhood seem to be working?

27) Do most of the young people in your neighborhood go to school? Of those who do not go to school, are they working?

28) Is there much trouble with crime, narcotics, alcohol, gangs, etc.? Specify

29) What clubs, social or community agencies are located in your neighborhood? Which of these do you belong to or have you visited? For what purpose?

Home & Family:

30) How long have you lived in (name of city, town, or county)? How long in your present apartment or house? How long in your present neighborhood? Where did you live before coming here?

31) How many times have you moved in the last 5 years?

32) Do you live in private house (own or rent), apartment house, hotel, rooming house, other? Describe.

33) How many rooms are there in your home? Do you have your own room?

34) Who else is in your household and family? Describe relationship, age, sex, school status, work position and where they live.

35) If separated or divorced, describe family, home, financial arrangements.

36) Is there one person in your family you'd like most to be like? Why?

37) Who would you tend to talk to when you have a serious problem? Why?

38) What outside agencies would you turn to for help with a serious problem? Why?

Health:

39) What would you say your general health is like?

40) Do you have medical coverage of any kind?

41) Do you have any physical limitations? Specify

42) When was the last time you had a medical checkup?

43) Do you have a doctor or medical clinic which you visit regularly? Specify

Legal:

44) Have you ever been in trouble with the law? Will you tell me about it? Offense, Dates, What Happened, Final Outcome

Leisure Time Activities:

45) Describe an average day in your life (probe for non-employment activities with view to attachment or disattachment to people and community.)

46) Are there things that you used to do more than you do now? What things? How come you do these less now?

47) Are there things you do more now than you used to do? Specify

48) Did you *ever* belong to any of the following organizations? Do you still belong? Church or religious organization, Labor union (specify), Political club, Civic or fraternal organization, Lodge, Sports or social club, Parent-Teacher Assn., Grange, Boy or Girl Scouts, 4-H Club, Other (specify)

49) What offices did you hold in any of these organizations?

50) Which of the following things do you talk about often? With whom? Housing Problems, Discrimination, Juvenile Delinquency, School conditions, Crime, Politics, World Affairs, Work, Others (specify)

51) Daydream a little bit. Imagine that the sky is the limit: What would you desire most in life? What things would you say hold you back from obtaining this? What might you do about it?

52) If you are accepted for this program, can you think of any family, personal or financial limitations that might interfere with your training and work? (Describe program again)

53) Why are you interested in this program?

54) Do you think you'd like working in the field of community organization?

55) Why do you think you are suited to do this kind of work?

56) Thinking back over the interview, how would you say you felt about it? Was there anything about it which was distasteful or upsetting? Was there anything about it which was helpful?

57) How do you feel now? What do you think about the training and job? Do you have any questions?

Do you have any specific ideas about how conditions in the community could be changed and improved which you would like to submit in writing?

INTERVIEWER'S CHECK LIST

1. Ability to communicate: (Describe particular strengths or weaknesses).
2. Relevancy (of answers to the questions): (Describe particular observations).
3. Tension: (Describe degree and kind).
4. Personal Appearance: (Include dress, neatness, cleanliness, bearing, etc.).
5. Attitude toward self and own capabilities.
6. I would______would not______recommend this person for training because

INTERVIEWER'S CASE SUMMARY

Applicant's Name; Code Number; Method of Referral (names; if any)
Interviewer; Conference Date; Interview Date.

Comments of Referring Agency or Individual (if any)
Why Did Applicant Apply for this Program?

1. Identification Data:
   Age; Sex; Marital Status; Place of Birth; Family Status; Number of Dependents; Education; Years of Work Experience; Employment Status; If Unemployed, How Long?

2. Describe the appearance and behavior of the applicant.

3. Describe the educational background of the applicant.

4. Describe the work history, service experience and particular skills of the applicant.

5. Describe the neighborhood, family and home environment of the applicant with emphasis on his attitudes toward same.

6. Describe the hobbies and leisure time activities of the applicant with emphasis on attachment and disattachment to other people and groups.

7. Describe the medical and legal aspects of the applicant's background.

8. Describe particular strengths and weaknesses not covered in other questions.

9. Interviewer's recommendation; accept, reject, reinterview.

10. Estimate particular strengths and weaknesses in relation to job description.

11. Consensus of total staff; accept, reject, reinterview.

12. Questions which need clarification, changes, additions and deletions.

PLANNING THE TRAINING PROGRAM

The goals of training will depend upon the program of each CAA, its target community, the trainees who have been selected, and the decisions made about the role or roles for which these particular neighborhood workers are being prepared. The conclusion reached during staff preparation, before the designing of a training program, should serve as a realistic foundation for all training decisions. Guidelines for translating those decisions into a rationale for training content, personnel, models, schedules, space, equipment, and materials comprise the content of this section and that which follows.

Outline Of Curriculum Content

The following sequential outline of a basic curriculum for training neighborhood workers can be used as an aid by the planning staff in deciding upon timing, schedules, models, resources, techniques, and methods.

I. The Community Action Agency

   A. Enabling legislation (Federal)

   B. Enabling legislation (local, if applicable)

   C. Historical context

      1. Who participated in its formulation?
      2. What interests were not included?
      3. What limits on the CAA's freedom of action resulted from the agreements reached at the Community Action Agency's inception?

   D. Over-all goals

   E. Structure of CAA

   F. Functions of CAA components

   G. Programmatic goals of the components

   H. Relation of neighborhood worker's role to CAA goals, structure, functional divisions and programmatic goals.

II. The Local Face of Poverty

   A. Who are the poor?

   B. Where are the poor?

C. What are the effects of poverty on the poor?

D. How many poor are there?

E. How poor are they?

F. What other factors beside poverty and its causes tend to oppress the poor?

G. What kinds of relationships do the poor have with the rest of the local community?

H. Does poverty serve to benefit anyone?

   1. Merchants?
   2. Underworld?
   3. Political structure?
   4. Landlords?
   5. Social service and other helping agencies?
   6. Banks?
   7. Insurance companies?
   8. Police departments?
   9. Community Action Agency?

III. The Human Services in the Local Community

A. What services are available?

B. How available are they?

C. Who pays for these services (public, private, or voluntary)?

D. What are the goals of these agencies?

E. To what extent do they meet their goals?

F. Where are the gaps in services that result from an imperfect coordination of independently developed agency goals?

G. Can these gaps be closed?

   1. Negotiation.
   2. Social action.
   3. Political action.

IV. The Relevant Political Systems

A. Federal

B. State

C. Local

D. Questions about the above.

1. How are decisions made?
2. At what points can the process be influenced?
3. To what extent does bureaucracy at the above three levels change the intent and scope of the legislation?
4. What impact does the judicial system have on decisions made at the above three levels?

V. The Community's Informal Decision-Making Structure.

A. Does it exist?

B. Where are the centers of power?

C. What is its relation to the political system?

D. Is it possible to create new centers of power?

VI. The Local History Of The Community's Various Ethnic Groups

A. When and from where did each group arrive?

B. Relationships within and between ethnic groups.

C. Socio-economic status of ethnic groups.

VII. Map Reading and the Use of City Directories

VIII. Current Events

A. National and local events as they affect the goals and programs of the CAA.

B. National and local events as they have impact on the poor.

IX. Community Organizational Techniques

A. Strategies

1. Conflict
2. Consensus
3. Negotiation

B. How do you begin?

- C. Group process
- D. Decision making
- E. Implementation of decisions
- F. Evaluation of efforts
- G. Leadership development
- H. Enablers vs. leaders

X. Social Service Techniques

- A. Interviewing
- B. Referral
- C. Advocacy
- D. Follow-up
- E. Recording
- F. Surveying

XI. Organisational Constraints

- A. Limits on agency freedom
- B. Agency constraints on worker
- C. Worker's constraints on the target population

XII. What Does the Professional Bring To the Community Action Agency?

- A. Scope of knowledge and skills with respect to eliminating poverty.
- B. Supervisory skills.
- C. Value system.
- D. Another point of view (perspective) on the issues in the poor community.
- E. Ability to coordinate resources.

XIII. What Does the Neighborhood Worker Bring To the CAA?

A. Intimate knowledge of the problem.

B. Knowledge of the community.

C. A source of unique, additional, less expensive, and more readily available manpower.

D. Emotional commitment.

The Planning Staff

Based on your full staff discussions, you have probably identified those staff members who are most qualified and willing to participate in the training program as supervisors or consultants. Also, you have probably by now selected your principal trainer, either from the staff or from outside the agency. You may have elected to bring in a consultant who has developed and worked with training programs for indigenous subprofessionals. You also may have in mind some specialists, selected from outside the agency, who will share their knowledge and experience with the subprofessionals during training. Any or all of these people might participate in planning the training program.

The administrator of the agency or his representative, and the person assigned to direct the training program should participate. In all, the number of people chosen to plan the program will depend on the kinds of expertise that are needed and are available. The size of the group should probably not be over eight or ten.

Administrative Responsibility for Training

A director of the training program or an assistant to the principal trainer who can make arrangements for field trips, obtain needed materials and equipment, contact special personnel, handle financial matters, and cope with the multiple details which arise during the course of training will be needed. The number of people assigned to these jobs and the level of their responsibilities will depend on the size, length, and intensity of the training program. No matter how small the training program, someone should be assigned to help the principal trainer with the details of the program.

It is also important that the lines of communication between the training facility and CAA administration and staff be kept open. This might be done through regular meetings attended by the training staff, supervisors, and CAA administration. When planning the training program, the responsibilities of the assistant to the trainer and/or director of training should be carefully spelled out.

Trainers and Consultants

In addition to the classroom trainer and the supervisors who serve as trainers in an on-going manner, most subprofessional training projects employ specialists in certain of the content areas which have been selected as a part of the curriculum. Which material is presented by outside consultants depends upon whether the trainer, a supervisor, or another staff member has the special knowledge required, time available, and, of course the teaching ability. Also, although someone on your staff may have special knowledge of a certain content area, you may choose to bring in another person who can present it from an extra-agency point of view.

Some local consultants may be available without a fee. However, it is wise to project your consultant funds during planning in such a way as to pinpoint at least some of the major areas in which they will be needed (wherever possible) and allocate funds in advance.

Those people selected to work with the trainees on a limited-time basis should have experience and knowledge in the field they are discussing, particularly as it relates to aspects of poverty. Ideally, they should be people who have the ability to make the information interesting, even exciting, without sacrificing accuracy. The strength to be able to deal with the kinds of questions a "turned on" group of trainees will pose following a good presentation is another asset to be sought in such specialists. Needless to say, these qualities are important qualifications for anyone training subprofessionals. Unfortunately, they are also relatively rare. But such people do exist and can be located.

Recruitment of outside specialists is often done informally through contacts developed by various staff members and friends of the CAA. Trainees may identify possible specialists respected in the neighborhood. If qualified persons are not already known, a more formal recruitment, through channels in the organization or service discipline, may be necessary. If you are using an over-all consultant to help plan the program, he may be able to suggest good "presenters" thoroughly grounded in their field.

A number of training programs have been able to hire experienced subprofessionals as trainers to teach parts of the curriculum, both in the classroom and the field. In New Haven, Conn., a team of subprofessional trainers does the field work training; each one taking a small group of trainees into the poverty area and working in a demonstration fashion on interviewing, community meetings, etc. In other programs, subprofessionals who have become particularly skilled in certain aspects of their work, for instance, housing and tenant action, or working with juveniles, have been asked to discuss their areas of expertise with new trainees. The use of talented subprofessionals as assistant trainers, on either a part or full-time basis, has proved highly successful. Often the trainer-subprofessionals will be working in the same community as the trainees and can provide them with an additional source of support. If a CAA has not already trained subprofessionals who can serve as a part of its present training staff, it may be possible to hire them at least temporarily, from another agency which has developed a training program with a subprofessional-trainer component.

The NCEY training program encouraged its trainees to teach others in the group when their knowledge was needed as a part of the content. For instance, lessons in Spanish were given by one trainee to those who did not know the language but had placements requiring its limited use. This practice can be extended as the abilities of the group--and their special needs--become better known.

Physical Arrangements, Space, and Equipment

Classes should be held in a well lighted room that is located where excessive noise won't interfere with the activities of other staff. This is important because both the trainer and the trainee should feel comfortable with a discussion that results in people speaking above conversational tones. If it is at all possible, the room should be large enough to allow flexibility in the seating arrangements so that the group may experiment actively to find effective seating arrangements for the variety of activities. A bulletin board and a chalk board (blackboard) are important. Other items of equipment that may be needed are:

...Tape recorders, audio-visual equipment, a telephone, and enough electrical outlets to allow flexibility in use of the equipment.

...Reference books, newspapers, directories, magazines, maps, films, and a small paperback library.

...Copies of all agency forms that the trainees will be required to use.

...Writing materials for the trainees and the training staff.

...Miscellaneous supplies such as a coffee pot, scotch tape, paper clips, rubber bands, etc.

TRAINING RATIONALE AND ACTIVITIES

Rationale

The introduction of subprofessionals to the demands of a new role requires that the training be conducted so as to enable the trainee to reconcile his experience with the knowledge and techniques he is being asked to acquire. This makes it incumbent on the training staff to structure the training to involve the trainee in examining his new role in the light of roles he formerly played. The training staff should also anticipate problems the trainees will have in meeting the demands of both the training program and the new job role that will follow.

The trainee will eventually be asked to use himself consciously as an intervenor in people's lives to help them better their own conditions in ways defined by both the client and the agency. This requires that the trainee learn to analyze the problems that have impact on the agency's clients. The trainee also has to learn to communicate effectively with clients, his peers, and with those above him in the agency's hierarchy. In order to be an effective agent, the trainee must also be aware of the assumptions that are a crucial part of the value systems of his clients, his agency, the community, and himself. These three tasks are not easy to accomplish and not every trainee will be able to master them all. Mastery of the three tasks should be a goal in the minds of both the trainer and the trainee.

Reaction To A New Role

When faced with the demands of their new role, subprofessionals may react in a number of ways. An effective training program will provide the trainee group and the trainer an opportunity to test out the reactions of individual trainees in various situations relevant to the job to be performed. It is during training that the trainee should be given an opportunity to apply the knowledge and techniques that are appropriate for the role he will be expected to play. When faced with the demands and armed with the power that is a part of the helping role, professionals and subprofessionals may react in ways such as the following:

1. The ward heeler reaction --the power to give or withhold help can be a corrupting influence and can result in the worker helping only those clients who appeal to him personally or who agree to provide him with something he values in return.

2. The professional enabler reaction--the worker over identifies with the social worker-psychotherapeutic model and becomes so non-directive that he confuses those he is trying to help and, at the same time, avoids accepting responsibility for the results of his "intervention."

3. The crusader reaction--the worker becomes so committed to the clients that he loses perspective and becomes unable to analyze problems rationally or to use his skills and knowledge to help the client make decisions that will result in the client's needs being met.

4. The withdrawal reaction--the worker is so overwhelmed by the role he is expected to play that he moves away from the client's problems and loses himself in agency recording, special projects in areas of the program where he feels comfortable, agency housekeeping activities, or any other activity that will allow him to avoid dealing with the problems of clients.

5. The angry poor reaction--the worker deals with his inability to help the client population by becoming angry at the inability of the agency to immediately solve all of the problems of the poor. The worker chooses to attack the agency rather than dealing with the problems in his own practice that are preventing him from being an effective worker.

It is the function of the trainer to help the trainees analyze their reactions to the new situation and to develop means of coping with their own practical problems so that they can become effective members of the CAA team. In order to fulfill this expectation the trainer must communicate the requisite skills and knowledge to the trainees as well as create an atmosphere in which learning can take place.

The Setting and Atmosphere

Most of the trainees, by definition, have not been able to deal effectively with standards of success as defined by the larger society. The very fact that they are poor means, in our society, that they have not met the prevailing standards of achievement. This is not to say that the trainees are incapable people. On the contrary, that they have managed to survive in a hostile world is testimony to their ability to deal with adversity. The crucial question that both the trainer and the trainees must answer is whether the coping skills the trainees have used all their lives will enable them to be effective neighborhood workers?

An effective means of answering this question is to test out the typical coping mechanisms in the training program. The trainer and the trainees must strive to analyze and resolve those practical problems that evolve from the trainees' use of their traditional coping mechanisms. The poor have survived in our society by using such mechanisms as rationalization of their own behavior, challenging authority constantly, continually giving in to authority, withdrawal of effort, and the creation of distinct subcultures. The trainer must help them decide what from this "bag of tricks" will not be useful to them in their new roles.

Training should be done in small groups of ten to fifteen whenever possible. This group size will enable the trainer to maintain an atmosphere of collective problem-solving rather than that of a typical classroom. This is important because the trainees must feel free to participate in an informal discussion with the trainer and their peers. Hand-raising should not be encouraged, rather the trainer must be sensitive to the faces and body postures of the trainees as being an effective means for a trainee to indicate his desire to speak. The trainer should also alert the trainees to the techniques that he uses to decide when a trainee wants to speak. These techniques will be useful to the trainee when he finds himself working with small groups. The trainer may call on people who indicate their readiness or he may simply let the trainees manage the mechanics of the discussion informally. If he takes the latter course, he should be prepared to intervene when a few people dominate the discussion to the exclusion of others who want to speak, much in the same way that he would expect a trainee to manage a group in actual practice.

The trainer should initially establish three clearly defined limits for the group:

1. specific standards of attendance, including procedures for calling in to the agency when the trainee is unable to come to work;

2. each member of the group must respect the rights of the other group members and those of the trainer;

3. each member of the group is obligated to speak his mind--all problems related to the group are to be discussed and worked out in the group context.

These limits should apply equally to the trainer. From time to time these rules or others established by the group will be at issue within the group. The trainer should always be willing to entertain a discussion of the viability of any rule or procedure that the group is operating under. While he should normally retain the responsibility for conducting the training group, he should encourage the trainees to disagree actively whenever they feel something is wrong. By encouraging the workers to assert themselves for what they feel is right, the trainer provides them with an opportunity to polish the techniques that they will be expected to use on the job. The trainer should insist that the trainees prepare their case effectively before he gives in to their demands. If their case does not "hold water," he should not give in. On other occassions, the trainer should help the trainees to analyze the weaknesses of their case and to prepare a more effective presentation.

Communicating Knowledge and Skills

Training members of the target population in what they have to know to do their jobs is not a simple, straightforward task. The trainer must find means of making his material "come alive." He must start with the knowledge and techniques that the trainees bring to the situation and work toward developing a level of competence that will allow them to make sound decisions under what are often difficult circumstances. In some respects the training of subprofessionals has goals similar to those of professional training. Both groups are trained to make decisions; in both types of training, the trainer must start with what the trainee brings to the situation. The wide difference between the backgrounds of the typical professional and subprofessional learner makes the task of teaching the subprofessional much more difficult than the professional would ordinarily think.

Subprofessionals can't be given large reading assignments to do at home. The subprofessionals don't usually have undergraduate academic experiences as a frame of reference for the theoretical or practical material covered in their classes, as professional students do. Subprofessional trainees have not spent the bulk of their lives in an environment where abstract thinking is encouraged. Subprofessionals don't have two to six years to prepare for the firing line. As a result, the trainer must provide remedial experiences in abstract thinking, and he must tie the abstract thinking immediately to the concrete reality with which the trainee will have to deal in a matter of days. The professional worker charged with the responsibility for training subprofessionals should not attempt to give the trainees a watered-down version of his own professional training, communicated by audio-visual aids. While elements of his own training will obviously be included, and audio-visual aids can be extremely useful, the burden of developing the content and the teaching methods to be used rests with each trainer. The training models and the examples of techniques that are included in this section of the Guide are intended to stimulate the trainer to develop models and techniques that will prove effective in his own unique situation.

Structuring The Training Program

Experimentation with models and training schedules is an on-going effort. Each agency will translate its philosophy, reconsidered to include the training and employment of subprofessionals, into practical considerations which lead to decisions about the structure of the training program. The qualities of the particular group of aides selected should also have an important effect on the plan for training them. The type of work which they will be doing from the outset and the skills and concepts required will indicate to the planners something about the format of the training meetings, kinds of teaching methods, and scheduling of each type of experience.

Models

The core group is usually a kind of home base for learning, led by a principal trainer working with 10 to 15 trainees. Its content is job focused. The trainees receive most of their initial orientation in the core group; they have a chance to develop as a group, and can experiment with some of the skills, concepts, and behavior they will need for their work and personal development.

The Institute for Youth Studies at Howard University has defined its concept of a core group for training neighborhood workers. The groups were relatively small--from 6 to 10. Although there was emphasis on training workers in community organization skills, the core content was basic to the role of any human-service worker. As defined by Howard, the purposes of the core groups are:*

> ...to communicate the general body of information about society, its relationships, development and behavior which is needed by all human service personnel
>
> ...to teach specific skills for workers in the human services field
>
> ...to help the trainees acquire appropriate group-sanctioned standards, attitudes and behavior which will contribute to their effectiveness as neighborhood workers
>
> ...to enable indigenous trainees to develop a supportive sense of identity with other non-professionals in human services

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*William Denham, Naomi Felsenfeld, Walter Walker, op. cit. p. 37.

The teaching methods employed in core groups can be varied. Didactic teaching has not been found to be the most effective. However, used sparingly--particularly in the beginning--and chosen when required to relate particular kinds of material, it is effective. Role playing is useful in practicing certain skills, reliving and reassessing on-the-job experiences, and in preparing for the use of certain techniques in the field. Overuse of role playing, as of any technique, however, can detract from its value. Discussion following an initial presentation by the trainer or a specialist can be important in helping the trainees develop problem solving and analytic skills. Informal discussion among the subprofessionals which springs from the trainees' experiences in the community or agency is an important ingredient of the core experience. If properly guided and led, discussion should serve to develop skills, clarify thinking, and work through attitudes. It also becomes an important way of obtaining feedback from the trainees about the program for purposes of on-going evaluation and replanning.

The content of core training is discussed later in this section as it relates to the neighborhood worker's job. The core method of training is accepted by many training programs as most effective because it serves as the best vehicle for presenting a wide range of content, using an equally varied set of methods and resources. This, however, does not clarify many of its additional values. The Howard staff for training neighborhood workers has described its views on the value of the core group.*

> ...It provides actual experience with the 'group' nature of community life. The 'core group' is a microcosm of the larger community groups (and the dynamic process) with which the nonprofessional will have to work later on.
>
> ...It emphasizes for the trainee the relationship between individual and community problems, why collective solutions are needed, and how they can be developed. On the basis of his life experience, each trainee brings his own perception of problems to the 'core group'...As discussion starts from this concrete base of individual responses, and each member of the group contributes his thinking and reactions. the perspective of the trainee broadens. He begins to identify the many factors which contribute to problems like inadequate housing, education, and employment opportunities in the impoverished community, and to see how a range of possible solutions may be developed which will benefit not only individual residents but the neighborhood as a whole.

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*William Denham, Naomi Felsenfeld, Walter Walker, op. cit. p. 38-41.

> ...It teaches the trainee how to use a specific tool, group strength, to build toward neighborhood development goals...In the training 'core groups' the future neighborhood workers learn how to mobilize their own resources and the resources of groups to combat exploitation by goal-directed action.
>
> ...The 'core group' provides a setting in which the trainee can, with minimum threat to his shaky self-confidence, work through attitudes which would handicap him as a neighborhood worker... The very workers who need to feel strong enough to risk themselves in helping their neighbors are frequently people for whom risk has no sense of adventure but rather an undertone of danger and impending doom...By concentrating, together, on concrete ways to overcome personal handicaps and community problems, members of the group find mutual support, their sense of inadequacy begins to diminish, their hostile or fearful attitudes change, and they develop a new sense of personal competence.
>
> ...The core group leads to greater personal maturity and security for the trainees...Initially, guidelines for work standards are established by the leader, but later the group becomes able to set its own guidelines.
>
> ...The core group helps the trainee develop a sense of occupational role identity...and minimizes the hazards of role conflict. As the workers learn to identify common elements and differences in work roles of their agencies, they move toward a specific sense of personal and group identity as neighborhood workers.

The extent to which emphasis is placed upon group dynamics as a major content area of training depends on the needs of the neighborhood workers in each agency. It is fair to say, however, that every training program will want to create the kind of atmosphere and process within the core model which the Howard concept describes.

Another element of the training model is the field, or on-the-job experience, and supervision which is an integral part of it. Although role-playing in the core group allows the neighborhood worker to learn by experiencing some of the situations in which he will find himself when he begins working, he should also actually become involved in the work as soon as possible.

Training staffs which have waited for more than a week before assigning the workers to a field placement have found that the trainees are likely to become bored and restless. Some experimental programs have initiated field placements within or just following the first week of core group orientation. This has worked well when (1) thorough preplanning has been done to select and integrate the field placement with the core group content and the requirements of the particular job, (2) the supervisors have worked out with the core trainer on-going arrangements to continue the inter-relationship of job experience and core content, and (3) the on-the-job experience has been planned not simply as an experience in observation or as secondary in importance to the core training. It should be an actual, supervised job.

The importance of selecting the placement to meet the needs of the trainee in preparing for his actual employment cannot be overstressed. Much thinking should be given to this by those responsible for planning core and on-the-job training. The experience of the trainee in the field should be work experience--and not only observation. Mistakes will be made, but they are essential for learning and should be so considered. When a subprofessional is to perform a particularly difficult aspect of his work, both the core trainer and supervisor should help to prepare him before he goes into the situation.

In some training programs there has been a tendency to place greater stress on the core model and less on the field experience. This can detract from the importance of the latter as a learning experience. The anxiety of professionals concerning the performance of the trainee in the field has been reported as a serious, though often temporary,deterrent to the full use of the OJT for learning. Such anxiety is transferred to the subprofessionals and tends to cause the planners not to use field experience as fully as possible.

To better use the training job, some training programs have added an additional element to the structure of training. Trainees who have been assigned in small groups from two to four to a professional supervisor, have met weekly for a regular feedback and discussion session with that person. This is in addition to the on-the-spot supervision which is given the trainees at work. This allows reflection and group discussion away from the more intense atmosphere of the job itself. This practice does not detract from the work in core sessions by trainees in reference to their field work, but places it within the context of larger group discussions and relates it to other aspects of the curriculum.

Schedules

The full length of initial core and supervised field training has varied considerably from program to program. If in-service training and on-going supervision is included, training should be considered continuous. The length of the initial core and on-the-job experience should depend upon the following factors: (1) The number and kinds of skills and concepts which must be mastered by a particular group of trainees for the job they are performing; (2) The difficulty of the jobs for which they have been hired and the depth and complexity of the material which is to be presented. For instance, it usually requires more time to train a neighborhood worker in the skills needed to work initially as a community organizer than if his first job is to provide services to members of the community on an individual basis. Also, if he is to serve as a semi-technician in any respect, such training might require more time; (3) The particular group of trainees, their experience, need for basic remediation, and ability to absorb and integrate the material given them.

The usual schedule for a combination of core and on-the-job training is from six to twelve weeks. Some training programs have attempted to eliminate integration of an on-the-job aspect of training and condense training into a two-to-four week classroom experience followed by job placement. This has tended to demand more time of the professional personnel in the long run as, when these subprofessionals finally do begin to work, the supervisor must, in effect, retrain them. Even with role playing and other 'experientially oriented' classroom techniques, the lack of input from actual experience detracts from the depth and meaning of the learning experience.

After the planners have selected the training models which they wish to use and the amount of time to be given to over-all training, a basic week's schedule should be planned. There are a great many possibilities to consider in deciding the amount of time needed each week for core meetings, field experience, and supervisory meetings. The National Committee on Employment of Youth trained its subprofessionals for a total of 12 weeks. The first two weeks were spent in the classroom or core group. For the following three weeks the trainees were in class three days and on the job for two. For six weeks they were on the job three days and spent two in class. The final week of the program was fully spent in core groups. The Howard University experimental training project for neighborhood workers, building on the experience of a number of previous training programs, devised a schedule which consisted of two days of core and classroom work, two days on the job, and one full day with the supervisor. Preplanning for correlation of in-class and supervised on-the-job experiences was done very carefully to assure as high a level of give and take between the two as possible. The trainers for core and class experiences met frequently with supervisors to reassess and evaluate their work and that of the trainees.

There is no doubt that the more components used for training, the greater the necessity for those serving as trainers (core, supervisory, and others) to work and meet as a team on a regular basis to integrate their work, evaluate, and reassess their success.

If a CAA elects to use core group meetings without an integrated job training experience, more attention will have to be given to flexibility in the core meetings. A full day in the classroom is not likely to lead to as much involvement and real learning for subprofessionals as a combination of real experience and core work. Also, the curriculum content which trainees would ordinarily bring to core from their field experience will have to be provided through other means; a heavier use of field trips, neighborhood surveys, specialist's presentations, etc.

Although the trainer's sensitivity to the learning climate in any core or class situation is essential to successful day-to-day work with the content, advanced planning which allows for both the timing necessary to learn a particular area and the need for a variety of experiences and flexibility is important.

SAMPLE LESSONS AND TECHNIQUES

Problem Solving

The following lesson is designed to encourage the development of group techniques for problem-solving and the ability to observe group dynamics. It should set in motion an atmosphere in which problems are analyzed and in which the need for ready answers will diminish. Speaking, listening, and leadership skills can flow from this setting. The lesson can demonstrate, by use of an arithmetic problem, the extent to which the defense of a premise, which has been reinforced, will make group discussion virtually impossible. It can provide an insight into the involvement of personalities in a group situation, and the limitations which that involvement imposes. It also can offer an overview of the traditional mode of participation to which group members have been accustomed.

This experience should be undertaken very early in the life of the group, before natural leaders have emerged. This will enable each participant's solution to have equal weight and will not allow trainees to select answers on the basis of group pressures, friendships or roles.

INST: Today, I'd like us to solve an arithmetic problem. I will repeat the problem as often as you need me to. You may use paper and pencil if you like. Each person should work alone to solve the problem. Just look up when you've finished. Here's the problem:

> A MAN BUYS A HORSE FOR $60. HE SELLS IT FOR $70.
> HE BUYS IT BACK FOR $80, AND THEN SELLS IT FOR $90.
> HOW MUCH DID HE MAKE?

(As students work, don't answer any questions other than requests to repeat the problem.) When everyone is finished:

INST: How many people got $0? Raise hands. (Send all who got $0 to one corner)

How many got $10? (Send all who got $10 to one corner)

How many got $20? (Send all who got $20 to one corner)

How many got $30? (Send all who got $30 to one corner)

Did anyone get a different answer? (Send to other areas)

Now each small group is going to come up with a solution to the problem and will pick a representative to solve the problem together with the representatives from each of the other groups. If you want to change your answer at any time, you are free to do so...just go to the new group. The $0's are there, the $10's are here, etc.

When representatives are ready:

INST: Will the representatives come to the front, please? You can use the blackboard if you like. Now these people are going to solve the problem of the horse and the rest of us will observe. Remember, you can change groups at any time. Let's all stay in our groups so we can identify them.

(Representatives will each explain how they got their answers--in other words, they won't solve the problem; they will defend their their answers. After a reasonable period of explanation and bickering, break the discussion off. Send the representatives back to their groups.) Then:

INST: Will each representative go back to the group and let's do some more work on solving the problem. You can pick new representatives.

(Repeat as above and break discussion)

INST: O.K. Let's all get seated and talk about what happened.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS:

A. Isn't there only one correct answer to the problem?

B. Was an attempt made by the representatives to solve the problem?

C. What was each representative doing?

D. What was the role of the group members while the representatives were up front?

E. What relationship does this exercise have to problems you will be facing in dealing with people--when there is no right answer?

F. Did emotions get involved in the solution of a math problem? Why?

G. How would you approach a staff meeting, based on this experience?

H. How could you help people in your community to conduct meetings?

One of the first questions raised will be "what's the answer?" The instructor should respond by noting that the answer is not important--the process of getting it is. This can easily lead to a discussion about authority and what it represents; also about the instructor's role as the students see it and as he sees it.

INST: If I told you that the answer was $40 and put the method of reaching it on the board, you could all sit together and help each other understand how that conclusion was reached. You would probably accept that answer. Why? What does this tell us about our experience in making judgments and decisions, and about the methods of involvement we have been used to?

Should the question of the answer come up at a later time, or at any time, no answer should be given. The issues raised can be discussed further.

OUTCOMES

Trainees will find this session to be an eye-opener and a great deal of fun besides. It is the kind of activity which can stimulate discussion over a long period of time subsequent to its initiation. It can serve as a touchstone throughout the training in that it reveals pointedly the need for a way of working together which is generally lacking in groups.

The Problem Census

The problem census is an effective way of developing curriculum content from the training group itself. It is also a technique for quickly cataloguing a list of topics relevant to a given area of concern which may have already been noted as of importance. The topics, drawn from the trainees, are utilized either as a basis for later, more detailed, examination or as a graphic means of perceiving the scope of a given issue.

It helps the group determine its goals and allows them to reach the goals by participation and judgment. It also provides a situation in which all group members can participate equally and can, thereby, allow each to see his role as a group member more clearly.

The instructor may serve as recorder or may ask the group to provide a recorder for the session. It is a fast-moving technique in which the instructor serves as catalyst when necessary.

Materials required: Blackboard and chalk or large newsprint and marker. The materials should be large enough to be seen by all group members during the course of the experience.

It is best that the trainer not allow discussion of the topics while they are being collected. He should set some limits at the outset for scope of the topics which are to be suggested by the trainees. The limits should not be too narrow, however. For instance, he might suggest that the group think of:

...problems encountered on the job which they would like to discuss in the training group;

...topics on which the trainees would like to hear experts speak;

...professional jargon or other terminology which trainees don't understand;

...problems in the community or neighborhood which need action and examination.

The trainer might introduce the lesson by making some of the following points:

1. He feels that trainees should be involved in determining some areas for training (or discussion, etc.) so the program can be of interest to them and meet their needs.

2. Ask for a definition of "census" so as to get the point that this will be a collection of information, not a time for discussion or judgment.

3. He would like the group's help in seeing to it that points raised are appropriate and that there isn't much repetition.

4. Encourage the group to participate by asking that topics be given quickly and that no explanation of them be made, unless the recorder raises a question or the group doesn't understand.

5. Present the topic for the census and ask for a recorder from the group (or the trainer may serve as recorder himself). Let the group know that they may write along with the recorder (or that he will have the list mimeographed for them so they need not copy it).

6. Let the group know that this census will serve as a basis for some of their classroom work and will also give them an idea of the broad range of ideas and concerns represented by their fellow trainees.

The census itself should be cut off when topics cease to flow freely. It is important that the material actually be used for the purpose it was obtained or, if not, that the trainer explain the reason to the trainees.

Role-Playing

This technique can be extremely valuable as a graphic means of demonstrating the variety of human interaction. In order for it to be most effective, trainees playing roles should be given new names. These names should be used throughout the action and the discussion that follows it. This is done for two reasons:

1) To allow the trainee to attempt to assume the identity of the character he is playing;

2) To avoid, in discussion of what took place, a situation in which action in the role is equated with function of personality. While there is ample room for frank and open discussion of people's action, once having adopted a role the trainee may act (and is indeed asked to act) in a manner which he does not necessarily associate with his own behavior.

The instructor should feel free to take a part in role-play situations, especially when he can assume the part of someone unlike himself. This gives the trainees the benefit of seeing the instructor in a new light, just as it allows trainees, in similar role-reversals, to present to the instructor a mirror of himself which might not appear in the course of discussion. Many inhibitions are broken down and insights can be gained as both instructor and trainee view each other's perceptions of familiar situations.

Role-playing serves as an excellent change-of-pace from almost any other kind of "classroom" activity. It provides movement, calls for creative thinking, and is active. Too, few people can resist having the "ham" in them called into action; similarly, being a process observer calls for a new and enjoyable use of analytical powers. In order for role-playing to be successful, it is wise here as in the theatre to leave the "audience" wanting more. Situations should be acted for a brief period rather than allowing them to go on in hopes of eliciting more material for discussion. It is better to deal with an unresolved point of discussion in role-play by trying a new role-play situation that covers the same point rather than beating the "dead horse" of a role-play situation that has outlived its usefulness.

A groups' beginning experience in role-play should be sufficiently well-structured so that:

a. The group understands the purpose of using this technique to simulate a real situation instead of talking about it;

b. The group is clear about the situation to be acted out. Each member should be given his name and his role and it should be explained until it is clear to him. It often helps in role-playing a group situation not to have the various actors know what kinds of people the other actors are playing. For example, if you want to have the first meeting of a tenant's group acted out, it helps to have people portraying the variety of personalities and attitudes that might be present. While the leader of the meeting might anticipate certain kinds of responses, in reality as in the role play, he would not be told in advance that John will resist all efforts to organize, Jose will say nothing throughout the meeting, etc.

When possible, it is helpful to preplan role-playing sessions. Cards with the roles spelled out on them are helpful for the actors. As the technique takes hold in the group, it can be used more spontaneously as an illustrative device or a change of pace in group discussion.

Interviewing

Many neighborhood workers will have responsibility for the initial contact with clients coming to the agency. It is helpful to go over the intake form with the worker so that he is aware of the nature of responses sought by the agency. While this is important for the worker as an aid to providing him with a sense of participation in the continuity of agency function, it is important for the agency as well. Early concentration on what information is expected to result from an interview will pay off later, when accurate data is required for research, for determining a client's eligibility for services, etc.

It is recommended that all forms which aides will be required to use be compiled for use as primary teaching materials. The instructor should provide each trainee with a copy and begin by explaining the purpose of the schedule. The agency's policy and rationale regarding information to be elicited should also be delineated--does the agency tell the client that he is free not to answer questions? Is the interviewer to tell the client that information will be kept in confidence, or that it is to be used for research purposes, etc.? Have questions been worded in a particular way for a particular reason or may the interviewer rephrase and improvise to suit himself as long as he gets the information?

An effective means for communicating the tone of an interview is role-playing. This can be done in several ways. Two trainees can act out an interview with the rest of the group observing, or the class can be paired off and each couple act out an interview. The pairs would report back to the whole group following the action.

In advance of the role-play, groundwork for it should be laid. At what point will the action begin--when the client comes into the agency, when he is shown into the interviewer's area, when the interviewer goes to get the client from the reception area? Where does the action end--at the last question, when the client gets up to go, when the interviewer sees him out of the office or to the door? While these factors are not "interviewing" per se, they are at the heart of establishing the client's feelings about the interview, the agency, and the worker.

The Interview Or Survey In The Neighborhood

Workers may be expected to interview neighborhood residents for a variety of purposes: to assess their needs, to get their reactions to agency program, to determine eligibility for program, etc. Because the worker must leave the agency to do the interview, additional skills may be required of him. Depending on how the agency perceives the role of the worker and of the interview in this situation, the approach to field interviewing will be developed. If the agency wants the worker to become known to neighborhood residents before any interviewing, canvassing, or survey work is begun, then the agency must set up a time table and methodology consistent with this goal. Once the purpose of the task is established the trainer can utilize training time for preparation of the trainees.

Assuming that orientation to the neighborhood has taken place, trainees can begin by listing places for meeting residents, and the advisability of going to one place where people gather, as opposed to another, can be discussed. A number of attitudes regarding the neighborhood and the people in it may be expressed in the discussion. These attitudes should be explored with the group in an attempt to have each worker come to grips with the feelings that will influence his ability to use his full potential on the job. The types of reactions workers may get from residents should also be hypothesized and ways of dealing with them explored. Trainees should be encouraged to act out introductory encounters with residents, with the trainee who plays the client having a good idea of the type of person he will play, e.g. suspicious tenant, disinterested housewife, hostile teen-ager, aggressive mother, etc. Following the role-play, discussion should center on some of the following issues:

a. How did each actor feel about what happened? Which feelings does each attribute to himself and which to something his partner did, said or expressed?

b. Was each actor really "in character,"was there inconsistency, why?

c. What techniques did each actor use? Which were valuable? What techniques could be changed? Would other techniques have been more appropriate, more effective?

Telephone Techniques

The Telephone Company can be helpful in providing a speaker, free of charge, to discuss telephone techniques. The speaker will also bring some telephone company materials which may be useful. The trainees should be provided with the blank personal telephone books which the company provides. The telephone company speaker will explain by demonstration the use of push button phones and other instruments which an agency may have. He will usually bring a tape recorder with telephone attachments with which the group may practice their telephone techniques.

It is helpful for the agency to have a message form for use by all staff people. This form should be explained to workers.

A few basic points to get across about the use of the telephone are:

1. Your voice represents the agency. The way in which you present yourself by telephone tells the person on the other end something about the way the agency operates.

2. Accurate messages save time, work, and money. If information can be gathered efficiently by phone, much leg work can be avoided.

3. When using the telephone to secure detailed information, the same kind of preplanning is necessary as for an interview with the person being called. It helps to get down the questions you want to ask. It also makes sense to develop a short statement about yourself, your agency and the reason for your call so that your purposes and identity are clear to the person you are calling.

Guide Groups Through Problem-Solving

In many CAAs the central task of the neighborhood worker is neighborhood development. While neighborhood development is not an exact science, there are a number of steps that neighborhood workers take with the groups they are working with. These steps are seen as an effective means of enabling groups to solve problems. In teaching neighborhood workers to follow these steps in their work with groups, one effective means is to train the workers by helping them to use the process whenever their group must solve a problem. The process is relatively simple. First the steps are made explicit to the trainees, and then they are encouraged to work through decisions that they have to make in the context of the training program by using the steps. The following are the basic steps:

1. defining the problem
2. clarifying the assumptions involved in the problem
3. fact-gathering in relation to the factors that have impact on the problem
4. determining the group's goals
5. discovering and describing alternative courses of action
6. evaluating the possible courses of action in terms of their anticipated result and the group's goals
7. selecting the most promising alternative
8. operationalizing the selected alternative
9. execution
10. feedback and evaluation
11. action based on evaluation

How To Offer Help

This is an exercise on how to give and receive help in a problem situation. We will work in three-man groups with members designated by the letters P, Q, and R.

One of the three, P, presents his problem; R offers some kind of help in accord with instructions he has received; Q then presents a different style of help in accord with his instructions. At the end, there will be an opportunity to discuss how each member felt during the exercise.

Observation Instructions

1. Listen thoughtfully to the situation as presented.
2. As you observe the discussion between P and R, note:
   a) What do you think were the unspoken feelings of each as the talk went on?
   b) How were proposals from R given, how received?
   c) What proposals seemed to be helpful? Why? Which not helpful? Why?
3. As you observe the discussion between P and Q, note:
   a) What do you think were the unspoken feelings of each?
   b) How does Q's behavior differ from R's and with what effect on P?
   c) What did Q do that seemed to bring insight? What did he do that seemed unproductive?

INSTRUCTIONS TO P (Person with Problem)

Choose a situation on which you would like help, preferably a situation from your work experience. It should be important to you and something you have thought a good deal about. It should be something you want to do something about. You will have about ten minutes to tell about it and about twenty minutes to discuss it, ten minutes with each of two persons.

Join freely and genuinely in the discussion--first with person designated as R and then with Q. Try to get help from them. Test out their suggestions and explore their ideas. Try to give them real understanding of your situation. Ignore observers and trainer.

Note how your feelings change, if they do, during the discussion; try to connect any changes in feeling with what R and Q say and do.

After the discussion you will have about five minutes to tell the group how you felt and what ideas you now judge to be fruitful and helpful.

INSTRUCTION TO Q (Questioner)

1. Listen thoughtfully to the situation presented.

2. Your task is to help P find his own solution and figure his own problem. You will try to do this by asking questions of him. Keep from giving any advice or bringing up experiences of your own or of others. Keep questioning P to bring out new angles. Keep responsibility for the answers on P himself. You will have succeeded if you get him to redefine his situation, seeing the problem as due to different factors than the ones he originally presented.

INSTRUCTION TO R (Recommender)

1. Listen thoughtfully to the situation as presented.

2. Respond with any of the following attempts to help:

   a) Recall and describe a similar experience you or someone you know or read about has dealt with. Tell what was done to improve situation. If P doesn't accept or seem to hear, and you still see it as a good solution, try to explain further.

   b) Recommend, in order, the steps you would take if you were in his situation. If P doesn't accept some of these, make other proposals until you hit on something he finds helpful.

Conflict

Conflict is a fact of life in our society. For the most part, our public policies are determined in an atmosphere of conflict. Courts of law, the halls of our legislative branches of government, and the city halls of our nation are all institutions that have been given the task of resolving conflict. Our economy is characterized by competition that has its basis in the conflict of interests between two firms that sell the same product. The plight of the poor, in many respects, is rooted in conflict. The competition for scarce public services and for scarce jobs is basic to the situation that the poor face every day of their lives.

Neighborhood workers will inevitably be involved in conflict at one level or another. While some will be concerned with tenant-landlord conflicts, others will be involved either directly or indirectly with the conflict between a father and his teenage son.

In order to work effectively in the community, the worker must understand the dynamics of conflict. He must recognize that, in many circumstances, conflict is healthy and can be used as a unifying force in a particular community. The following is a sample lesson plan for subprofessionals in the area of conflict.

Conflict And How To Deal With It

Conflict is present in all relationships among people--it can be negative and positive:

Negative aspects:

1. It can make us feel threatened or uneasy
2. It can disrupt what we are doing or feeling
3. It can be violent
4. It can be destructive
5. It can lead to death

Positive aspects:

1. It can be exciting
2. It can give us a chance to explore differences of ideas, methods and people
3. It can encourage us to solve problems
4. It can help us and society to grow

Conflict is present because people (systems) are dependent on one another for affection, security, power, etc. In relationships, the individual (or nation or group) is seeking a balance within itself which leads to conflict.

A variety of conditions cause conflict:

1. People having the same goals or needs when the means for reaching them are scarce. Ex: Two children both want the same toy, two equally qualified people want the same job, two political parties are running candidates for one office.

2. People having different goals, needs or methods for reaching them.

   Ex: The Democratic party is made up of two very different groups of people "Nothern liberals" and "Dixiecrats."

   Ex: Should we, as a tenants' group, get better service in our building by:

   a. Doing it ourselves

   b. Sending delegates to the Building Department

   c. Holding a rent strike

   Ex: My son needs to have his eyes examined for school today. My baby daughter has a bad cold and fever. Should I take my son to the clinic and take the baby out with me, or should I stay home with the baby and let the eye examination wait?

Pressure, either from ourselves or from others causes conflict and makes it harder for us to make fine distinctions in our thinking. In the case of the mother and her two children, what role does pressure play? Where does the pressure come from?

Emotional involvement in the situation may play a role too. How? What about personality?

Kinds of Conflict

1. Personal conflict--within the individual. The way in which a person tries to balance himself and his environment.

   Areas of personal conflict are:

   a. Search for balance inside oneself

   b. Search for behavior appropriate to each situation in life

   c. Problem solving and decision making

   d. Recognition of the role of rationalizing

   e. Role conflict--who am I? Is my role as a parent different from my role as a wife different from my role as a trainee?

2. Interpersonal conflict--between and among individuals in face-to-face relationships, such as marriage, family, and friendship.

3. Intergroup conflict--may be between similar or dissimilar group--neighborhood groups, national groups, ethnic and religious groups, international groups.

Which of the three involves the most intense feeling? Why?

How Do We Deal With Conflict

Have trainees make a listing of responses--if the following do not come up probe for them.

1. Deny that conflict exists--what happens to the problem we bury?
2. Restate the problem so that it is more comfortable
3. Generalize the conflict out of existence "You can't have your cake and eat it too."
4. Run away from it
5. Let others settle it
6. Approach it from outside remembering the need for appropriate behavior.
7. Meet it head on, analyze and study it, and try to find possible resolutions.

Win-Lose and Win-Win

Two ways to resolve conflict.

> WIN-LOSE--In a win-lose situation, one party gets while the other loses. One child gets the toy, the other gets none.
>
> WIN-WIN--In a win-win situation, conditions are changed so that everyone benefits. The children make up a new game so they both can play with the toy.

What atmosphere does a Win-Lose situation create?

What atmosphere does a Win-Win aituation create?

Can all conflict situations be resolved by one approach? Why do we need both?

Abstract Thinking

Many of the trainees may be unaccustomed to abstract thinking as a means of problem-solving. Their lives may not have prepared them to conceive broad principles from a number of related concrete facts. They may have difficulty with using the deductive process. As a result, the trainer may find himself teaching concrete facts. He may also find himself teaching the deductive method by stating broad principles and working logically to make explicit the concrete facts that flow from the original basic assumptions. The trainer must judge for himself the level of abstract thinking to which his trainees are accustomed. His next task is to develop the trainees' ability to think abstractly to the point where they will be able to communicate with their supervisors and to teach community groups the techniques of abstract thought and problem analysis.

A useful initial exercise is to confront the trainees with photographs of their own neighborhoods. These photographs should reflect both the physical and social characteristics of the area. Wherever possible, human interaction should be shown in the photographs. Each trainee should be asked to view the photographs and list the social problems he finds in each. These lists and photographs will then form the basis for discussion. The trainer should plan the lesson so that the trainees are asked to abstract the underlying principles that link the subject matter of the photographs. Subgroups of photographs may be more closely linked by a slightly lower level of abstract principle. Still smaller subgroups may be related by a still lower level of abstraction, and so on.

Practice in the deductive method of thinking can be given by abstracting the contents of mystery novels and working with the trainees to solve the crime by using the clues as they appear in the story. Card games are also an effective means of bringing home to the trainees a deductive process that most of them are quite familiar with.

Once the inductive and deductive processes have been made explicit to the trainees by a number of exercises such as those stated above, the trainer should reinforce these concepts by continually examining with the group the conclusions they have reached during training sessions in the light of the thought processes through which the conclusions were reached.

Evaluation, Planning, and Re-planning

Employing and training subprofessionals in community action agencies is an experimental and developing venture at every level. While a backlog of experience in training subprofessionals is developing, the "hard data" from these experiences has not yet resulted in proven national guidelines and an applicable format. The training staff of each CAA should therefore recognize that they are still participating in an experimental venture, and attempt to evaluate their success.

Just as individual trainers and supervisors evaluate their work with trainees on a day-to-day basis to improve their effectiveness, the agency will want to assess the success of its initial plans for training neighborhood workers over a longer period of time. The goals of training should be made explicit and serve as a basis for evaluating the training program's impact on the trainees' effectiveness as neighborhood workers.

Evaluation of the entire project may be done on either a formal or informal basis. If the CAA is able to obtain funding for a trained research consultant who can work with the staff for about two months over a period of a year, it should consider developing a formal study of its work. This is valuable to the agency as it tends to influence the staff to be more specific in its thinking about the project. It is of value to the field as a whole because there is a striking need for more "hard data" from these experiments. And, if the agency and the national network of similar programs are to develop career lines for subprofessionals, the data obtained from a formal research venture will provide a basis for on-going planning.

A professional research consultant would develop and process the evaluative instruments for the project, using as his resources the plans which have been made for the subprofessionals by the agency. He would very likely work with the staff for about two weeks before the basic training program began, devising instruments which could evaluate whether training succeeded in conveying the knowledge, skills, and attitudes hoped for as a result of the original plan. Processing these instruments after completion of the initial training period would require another period of time. Then, he would evaluate the trainees' performance, using another set of instruments, about a year after the program was initiated to provide a comparison between the initial plans of the CAA and the actual effectiveness of these plans on the performance of the neighborhood workers.

Whether or not the agency will be able to include an element of formal evaluation in its program it will, nonetheless, want to do some informal evaluation of its own success. An assessment of the extent to which the curriculum has been effectively taught may initially be made by the trainers and supervisors, using an inventory of the skills, knowledge, and attitudes which the agency plans to teach its trainees. This kind of list can be developed if the training content is carefully defined and the trainees evaluated before and following core training. However, additions to the curriculum and innovative changes in techniques, materials, and methods should not be discouraged. They will naturally spring from the on-going experience of the subprofessionals and trainers. For purposes of later assessment, these deviations from the initial plan should be noted and the rationale for them made a part of record.

About midway during any evaluative year and, again at the end of the year, the supervisors' evaluations of the aides' performance should be obtained and compared with the initial plan for integrating subprofessionals into the program.

Aside from the systematic inventory of the training content and the supervisors' subjective evaluations of the trainees' performance, the aides, themselves ought to be asked to evaluate their experience, with or without guidelines provided by the staff. Another obvious measure of the program's effectiveness is the "dropout record." Additional documentation which may help the CAA look informally at its success might include a list of the specific accomplishments of the workers in the community during the year. Notations of individual referrals, of community groups served, social action projects in which the workers participated, and the extent of cooperation with other community groups focusing on similar problems, can be considered.

In doing any kind of evaluation the community action agency should recognize that in working with the community, only one side of the equation is under the control of the agency. The CAA can control its own actions in the target area through planning, training, supervision, and personnel changes but it has much less control over the side of the equation that represents community attitudes, traditions, pressures and power relations. Thus, in evaluating the effectiveness of subprofessionals trainees on the job, trainers and other assessors should always be aware of the realities of the community setting within which the neighborhood workers serve.

A FINAL WORD

This work is aimed specifically at the training of subprofessionals for work in community action agencies. Subprofessionals are also being used in other ways and in other settings by a variety of sponsoring institutions. Schools, day care centers, hospitals, clinics, public welfare agencies, recreation centers, and employment services and agencies are some of them. As the number of subprofessionals increases and as the kinds of work they do also increases, their employment will have a profound effect not only on the service-delivery patterns of agencies, institutions and programs, but on national manpower policies as well. The neighborhood worker, then, is only one part of a growing movement to improve and expand the human services by providing a new kind of manpower where traditional training and staffing practices have created a serious shortage of workers.

To understand the hopes that are being heaped on these new jobs by a growing group of experts from a broad range of disciplines -- social work, psychology, education, medicine, sociology, economics, penology, etc. -- it is necessary to appreciate that the jobs and the programs into which they fit stem from sophisticated and intricate concepts that draw on some of the most advanced thinking in the social and behavioral sciences. Briefly, some of these new ideas are:

1) Because of current national priorities in antipoverty and civil rights, many of the jobs are to be filled by selected individuals from among the poor and the minority groups. Old ideas about education and testing have to be discarded and can be, new ways of training have to be worked out;

2) To make it possible for the jobs and the workers in them to be effective, professionals must change some of their practices and surrender some of their assumptions about the background needed for competence in at least part of what they do. The schools, the hospitals, the agencies, and other established institutions also have to change their structure and their practices to be able to benefit fully from the employment of these new workers;

3) Where the jobs involve services to minorities and the poor, changes are needed in professional practice and agency structure to allow appropriate workers from the target groups to use their special abilities to understand and communicate with the people being served, and to influence and help them. This means that these new workers need not only an opportunity to work, but also an opportunity to help decide the service policy of the institutions that employ them;

4) For the sake of the people in the jobs, the health of the economy, and the nation's long-range manpower needs, the jobs have to designed so that subprofessionals have a chance to advance to better-paying, more responsible positions as they gain in experience, training and education. Dead-end, low-level jobs must not be confused with subprofessional jobs, even though they are much easier to create;

5) A properly designed subprofessional job must include, in addition to a realistic task content that is not make-work, at least enough dignity to command a decent living wage, and it must make available an opportunity for advancement to higher-level jobs that really exist. It may be that most of the workers will not avail themselves of the full opportunity and will elect or be able to take advantage of only a portion of the opportunity. The significant point is that so long as the opportunity really exists, those with ability and aspiration for advancement will remain in the work. Their presence, and their attitudes, will influence all the workers toward higher quality in their work.

If the approach is to succeed, it must be supported by a total and realistic manpower policy. This will have to include the establishment of good personnel practices, the opportunity for subprofessionals to have adequate representation of their interests through unions or associations, equitable wages and working conditions, and recognition by the employers that the workers as well as the services and its clients are entitled to reasonable standards of competence in subprofessional employment. Only such standards can assure the self-esteem and confidence that the worker needs, and the dignity that the jobs must have for effective performance and decent pay and conditions. Subprofessional trainees must understand that they can lose their jobs if they do not perform adequately, but they must also respect the criteria for determining adequate performance.

At this time the nation is concerned about the poor because they reveal most dramatically the gap between our potential and our accomplishments. However, even if poverty as we know it is one day eliminated, we will still have a need for expanded services and, within that need, manpower problems that the subprofessional model can help solve. Even the characteristics that are now being identified among the poor and which, it is hoped, subprofessional employment can help alleviate -- economic insecurity, discrimination, disenfranchisement, alienation, low self-esteem, unrewarding employment, irrelevant services, and an incomplete life -- are not unique to the poor. If the subprofessional model is successful in antipoverty programs it can be extended eventually to help solve individual and manpower problems throughout the population.

The development of training, utilization, and job-design patterns for subprofessionals in community action programs can be the opening phase of a program of self-help for everyone.

ADDENDA

THE NEGRO IN THE UNITED STATES

A LIST OF SIGNIFICANT BOOKS
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of the New York Public Library, 1965
by Curriculum Consultation Service, Bank Street College

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NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON EMPLOYMENT OF YOUTH

Curriculum Development Project

GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Part II:

An Annotated Bibliography On Subprofessionals

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following annotated materials all pertain to the background, theory and utilization of subprofessional personnel. Much has been written about subprofessionals, much is currently being written. The items selected for annotation do not by any means represent the total literature in the field. Neither are they necessarily the "best" examples to cite. Materials were selected to present a picture of current thinking in the different fields now using or considering the use of subprofessionals.

If there is one overriding thread or theme which runs through all of this material, it is that each selection deals directly or indirectly with the training of subprofessional personnel. While some of the specific settings described may seem far removed from community action there are implications in each which have applicability to the training of neighborhood workers.

We have tried to present a wide range of publications because we felt that all have something to offer: a different concept, a new technique in training, an imaginative curriculum, a study of pitfalls to avoid, etc. Many authors cited here disagree with one another. This, we feel is good for a better picture of what some of the divergent views are as well as for illustrating different techniques and methodology.

An additional bibliographic list (not annotated) appears at the end of this Section to indicate further areas of investigation. We urge anyone involved with the training of subprofessionals to read widely among the literature.

The materials on the following pages are divided rather arbitrarily into what we consider to be their major foci. However there is much overlapping and we suggest a careful reading of the entire Section. In some cases, two lines are devoted to a publication; in other cases, a number of pages. This does not mean that the longer piece is more valuable or more important. It does mean that we did not wish to repeat too many items that, in effect, say the same thing.

The material is divided into the following major areas:

A. General Information, Theory, and Philosophy

B. Community Action

C. Education

D. Health and Mental Health

E. Social Welfare

F. Youth and Corrections

To repeat, many items fall into more than one area. Where this occurs, we have placed the item into what we felt was the most appropriate area. In all cases, the materials reflect ideas, approaches, and techniques related to the training of subprofessional personnel.

Unless otherwise specified within individual annotations, the terms: "subprofessional," "nonprofessional," "semi-professional," etc., are used interchangeably.

A. GENERAL INFORMATION, THEORY, AND PHILOSOPHY

Brager, George. The Low-Income Nonprofessional: An Overview of His Role in Program. Mobilization For Youth. New York City. n.d. mimeo. 15 pages.

In addition to the usual reasons for employing a nonprofessional (e.g., relieving the professional, applying the principles of self-help, etc.), the indigenous nonprofessional can help to achieve program goals. Among these goals which can be facilitated by employing nonprofessionals, one important one is increasing the participation of other slum residents in social welfare and community programs. This has been evidenced by the work of homemaker, community organization, and parent education programs. The author discusses the characteristics and style of nonprofessionals which are helpful in achieving the program's goals. He notes that they must be allowed considerable freedom to act and to make mistakes. The author states that one of the major difficulties encountered is the inability of the nonprofessional to facilitate communication between residents and conventional persons and institutions.

Fishman, Jacob R., and Alma Denham. "New Careers: Summary and Perspectives." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 174-209.

This is a summary of the conference and the perspectives gained. The conference discussion yielded the notion that to develop nonprofessional personnel takes special training and the development of status and career lines. Several participants emphasized the desirability for new personnel to have their own organizations: a nonprofessional union or a sub organization within a larger group to represent them and provide channels for the relief of job frustration. In addition, such organizations would provide a sense of group security and identity. Experiences presented at the conference suggest some trends:

1) In corrections, the trend toward using nonprofessionals in group counseling and milieu therapy modeled after self help efforts of AA. Also the use of the nonprofessional in systematic study and research, and in community involvement.

2) Social work positions are greatly in need of further role clarification. New classifications and principles for redesigning jobs are beginning to be identified but there remains the important task of exploring and specifying new areas of service, for example the neighborhood worker.

3) In public welfare, there are two principal developments. First, the 1962 Amendment to the Social Security Act makes it mandatory for states to provide for a study of each child to determine which children are likely to need protection. Second, states may now permit AFDC families to set aside earnings of youth for future educational purposes. Additional federal support possibilities await implementation. The whole field needs systematic evaluation of traditional programs.

4) The child care field is expanding rapidly and there will be tremendous need for staffing day care services. Day care is moving from a custodial to a pre-school program. This calls for radical changes in staffing policies including training, salary scales and promotional opportunities. Numerous demonstration programs exist but new directions still remain to be explored. One possibility might be experimenting with training of high school youths as workers in day care centers and placing such centers within the high schools. Another is the need for a system of national accreditation and evaluation.

5) In community mental health, the idea of the nonprofessional is supported, but professionals still tend to trust these personnel only with low level tasks. Nonprofessionals can be used to provide a healing function and a service function. Roles, especially in the community mental health centers, require comprehensive and coordinated work in all health and welfare services. New workers are needed for case finding, data collection, rehabilitation and occupational therapy, treatment, counseling, group work, etc.

6) The psychiatric aide in institutions is mainly in a dead-end job characterized by high turnover. New forms of training are needed to substitute for the lecture series; and new status, responsibility and opportunity are needed for career lines.

7) In the health field, there has been much experience with nonprofessionals, and many facilities exist which could provide training for more than 200 job categories within hospitals. There is ample room for the development of many additional job categories in traditional institutions and in the growing area of community health. But opportunities lose their value if supports are not provided for additional training and advancement to middle managerial levels.

8) Work with the mentally retarded is restricted by the poor image of the work, lack of training facilities, and lack of information; few people are attracted to the field.

9) Public education has perhaps the richest potential for new careers both in part-time employment for students still enrolled in school, and for those needing full-time work. Aides can perform a wide range of functions expecially if schools move toward serving as community centers. But it is vital that these jobs be incorporated into, and accepted as part of, the regular table of organization. Students could be trained and employed to assist with younger children.

10) In community organization, the nonprofessionals have always played an important role. Jobs need better definition, clearer goals, and connections between the project and permanent positions.

11) In research, the nonprofessional laboratory assistant is not a new category, but training and job development could increase the possibilities in both the physical and the social sciences.

12) Additional fields remain to be explored such as recreation, legal services, police protection and the like.

With respect to training, it is clear that there is a need for new training dimensions focused on new roles and the needs of the nonprofessional worker. Training sequences tend to be dominated by the needs of the professional. There are generic elements common to all human service fields which might form a common training sequence for a variety of specialty fields. Universities could contribute by conducting research and manpower projects, by developing training curricula, and by finding the general elements which might be taught to personnel on lower levels. On-the-job training is important to learning and for the realistic making of career choices. A major consideration is the development of facilities to train the trainers.

The problem of legitimizing nonprofessional roles is crucial to make the jobs permanent parts of institutional structures as soon as possible. Demonstrations are needed to open the way and provide the transition from the demonstration stage to a permanent status within ongoing institutions. Civil services need to be cooperative, and civil rights movements must address themselves to the wider problems of expanding educational and economic opportunity. And it is necessary to mobilize the local community and involve the vested interests rather than simply attack them. A final necessity is to systematically evaluate the specific programs and their hypotheses and make data available to all concerned.

Fishman, Jacob R., et al. Training for New Careers: The Community Apprentice Program. Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. June 1965. 107 pages.

This is a report of a demonstration project which trained 10 youths for three areas of human service: child care, recreation, and social research. The twelve-week training is described as consisting of a core curriculum, specialty workshops and seminars, and supervised on-the-job experience. Curriculum outlines appear in Appendix I (pp 83-91). Appendix II contains sample job descriptions of nonprofessional roles including: legal aide, probation aide, recreation aide, family counseling aide, community organization aide, and others. The text gives descriptions of the aides and includes the supervisors' records, and actual case studies and how the aides handled them (pp 30-35). Comments on the program by the aides are listed (pp 52-66).

To prepare disadvantaged youth for new careers in human services the primary emphasis in training programs must be on providing youth with some mechanisms for working toward a change of values and attitudes. They must achieve the following: 1) a sense of belonging to a group; 2) a sense of confidence to be gained from meaningful work--recognition by peers and supervisors; 3) a feeling of making a useful contribution, seeing the relevance of their work to their futures and to the community; 4) acquiring specific skills and knowledge; 5) gaining control over their own behavior. To achieve the last item, they will need to learn how to make contact with others, how to be at ease with others, how to observe human relationships and behavior, and how to handle their own feelings. In teaching specific skills, enough theoretical background must be included to provide motivation for advancing. Moreover, the program must be sufficiently flexible so that the aides will not be limited to one specific pre-determined job.

The core program of training consisted of three hours a day during the first six weeks, then twice a week during the second six weeks. The topics dealt with in this core program were: 1) the problems of human development--family life, childhood, adolescence, mental health; 2) the structure and function of community institutions and their resources; 3) special problems of the deprived and the unmotivated; 4) health care and first-aid; 5) program organization and development; 6) labor and employment; 7) law and legal-aid; 8) credit unions, insurance, medical care programs, and other financial items; 9) problems of working with people. The topics were handled by presentation for group discussion. The leader always raised questions of how to assess a situation, how to observe accurately, how to sort out alternatives, how to get sufficient information and begin to solve a problem, how to judge what information is important and relevant, and how to use others to help. Questions of this type were focused on a wide range of issues. For example: Who is best suited for what job and why? How to deal with annoying supervisors? What should be the rules and regulations concerning pay? Why does one feel outside a group? The group learned that in observing their own behavior, and in group discussions, they laid the groundwork for developing norms, sanctions, and values adaptable to the job and for working with others.

During the first two weeks, as a basis for work experience discussion, there was job rotation for all trainees. Specialty training consisted of on-the-job training which involved the trainees in the practical aspects of a job immediately following the rotation. This was supplemented by regularly scheduled sessions of training in specific skills and knowledge. The outline of the topics including the subject matter for discussion which arose spontaneously, are listed.

There was no detailed systematic evaluation. Findings are based on supervisory reactions. The first finding relates to pre-judgment of capability. The youths were selected and divided into different risk categories; 6 months later there was no discernable difference between the poorest and the good risks. This observation suggests that pre-judgment of capability must be avoided. They found that the aides' ability with language improved even though very little specific remedial instruction had been given. The suggestion is that this increased skill was related to their changed self-esteem. Four out of ten youths returned to school suggesting that the program itself had been a stimulus to an increased interest in education. They found that the youths had gained an ability to tolerate ambiguous situations and to delay gratification. (In this case it was mainly the fact that pay was held up.) The trainees attitude toward the sex links of jobs changed, e.g., the males initially were seen as unsuited for day-care work but, after training, began to see the possibility of jobs in this work with small children.

The program failed in one of its stated objectives: a truly effective group was not formed. The relevance of the group process to the learning process remains an unanswered question in this program. However, the training experience suggests that remedial work can be effectively accomplished in a group context.

Possible opportunities for developing new careers in education, corrections, social work, child care, mental health, and other fields, are outlined (Chap. 9).

Freedman, Marcia K. "The Use of Non-Professionals--A Survey." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth & Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 25-37.

Marcia Freedman defines some of the feasibility problems in job creation. She suggests that job creation needs to be done on a large scale with a degree of permanence and constant expansion. Jobs need to be designed in such a way that they can be performed effectively, and provisions for upgrading or increments in pay for length of service must be made. The necessity is for the creation of intervening levels to make the occupational gaps less of a barrier. For example, it may be possible to accredit the on-the-job experience of a practical nurse toward an RN degree or create a sub-RN level. What is needed is an exploration of methods for qualifying nonprofessionals to do higher levels of work by combinations of training and experience. The structure needs to be flexible enough to allow people to join in whenever they are ready.

Grant, Joan. "New Careers in Research." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 90-94.

The author notes that persons with limited training can perform many research functions. They presently do this in prisons and in the army. A few have developed research as a career as a result of their experiences as inmates. She suggests that the classroom is not the only place to learn research methods. Self study is the most appropriate training program for nonprofessionals. They can interview after some training, can code data, do some of the data processing, and sometimes they can design and carry out the studies. They also can disseminate findings to the community.

Howard University. Center for Youth and Community Studies. Job Description of Community Aides. Training Report No. 10. Washington, D.C. 13 pages.

This paper provides sample job descriptions for: community organization aides, day care aides, family counseling aides, health care aides, legal aides, probation aides, recreation, research, and remedial aides, classroom and library aides.

Levinson, Perry, and Jeffry Schiller. "The Indigenous Non-Professional: Research Issues." U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Welfare Administration. Division of Research. Washington, D.C. n.d. mimeo. 15 pages.

The discrepant role of the indigenous nonprofessional is discussed, i.e., the discrepancy in the nonprofessional's relationship with the professional and with the community. The nonprofessional has confidential information both about the agency and about the client. The aide is in a no-man's land between the professional and the client. He is pulled between an identification with the client, and a drive to identify with the professional. The writers specify three levels of nonprofessionals: the pre-professional, the semi-professional and the subprofessional. Pre-professional status is an apprenticeship prior to attaining the full professional level. The semi-professional is not necessarily a professional in training, but, for example, a person such as a homemaker aide. The sub-professional is one who is engaged in routine mechanical, clerical or maintenance tasks. The semi-professional level according to this formulation is the most discrepant.

MacLennan, Beryce W. "Training for New Careers." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 108-121.

The author notes that entry jobs are essentially one aspect of training. Training programs must include definition of role, selection and training of instructors, orientation of administrators, educational accreditation, decision on content and methods, and provision for evaluation. She cautions against reliance on traditional criteria. Trainees are unaware of career choices and therefore opportunities for job rotation are helpful. She describes the Howard University Program of core group training and specialty workshops. Her basic recommendation is the concept of a common human service aide training program to develop aides who can move into a range of new careers.

Neibuhr, Herman. "Modifying University Training." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 127-133.

Dr. Herman Neibuhr suggests the need to modify university training: universities must respond to new manpower needs. They must prepare to find common denominators in entry level jobs in the human services and develop the undergraduate programs needed to produce practitioners. Graduate programs should focus on developing trainers and consultants. Universities should also play an important role in the research and demonstration of roles for training non-college personnel.

New Careers Development Project. Job and Career Development for the Poor. Draft of a Report by the Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. Sacramento, California. October 1, 1965. mimeo. 28 pages.

The report recommends legislation for statewide long-range development of jobs in human services--to fit jobs to people rather than people to jobs. It asserts the need for a state agency to translate the findings of demonstration projects using the untrained person in areas hithertofore considered professional into prominent positions with potential for advancement. The employment of the poor will reduce alienation from helping services and provide professionals with a feedback on the needs and attitudes of the poor. Employment of the poor is both rehabilitative and helpful to the economy. The report recommends immediate establishment of several nonprofessional jobs. It identifies the public sector as the major employment resource. It asserts the population's transient state, the scarcity of professionals in human services, the needs for job creation to counteract automation and to provide jobs outside the private sector which is deemed inadequate to the problem.

To use the poor on a large scale in human services will require redefinition of jobs. Sufficient experience in demonstration projects is available to now apply the approach on a larger scale. It notes the need to review state civil service and state personnel rules but notes again that there are no structural limitations which prohibit necessary modification. Suggests immediate use of nonprofessionals already successfully demonstrated such as: 1) assistant to the teacher; 2) law enforcement-community relations aide; 3) child care aides; 4) public health aides; 5) psychiatric technician trainee aides; 6) homemaker aides; 7) employment youth advisor.

To change entry jobs into permanent careers requires training which must be job oriented and related to on-the-job experiences.

The Appendix contains job descriptions of youth advisors for the Youth Opportunity Centers, psychiatric technician trainees, and homemakers. It also contains estimates of nonprofessional jobs in the categories described.

New Careers Development Project. Job and Career Development for the Poor in the Los Angeles Area. Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. Sacramento, California. March 1, 1966. mimeo. 25 pages.

This report concludes that jobs funded by OEO are lacking in career lines or in connections with public and professional employment, that training is inadequate, and that little is being done to stimulate development of manpower resources of the poor by social agencies. It recommends that a coordinating body be formed to sponsor these and other functions. A possible prototype might be the demonstration project funded by National Institute of Mental Health based on the following seven principles of training: 1) interaction between kinds of learning methods and kinds of learning, for example, problem-solving methods need to be modified for different types of persons; 2) learning is more rapid and permanent when it is the function of purposeful activity; 3) learning is more effective when it results from efforts to satisfy self-needs; 4) art and game activities are techniques of learning without facing the commitments of real life; 5) self-knowledge is fundamental learning, to understand oneself is a way to learn how to understand others; 6) self-study is more effective and less resisted when it is part of an achievement rather than a therapy system; 7) group sharing of self-study enhances learning and provides social content for study.

Pearl, Arthur. "New Careers--An Overview." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth & Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 10-23.

Arthur Pearl discusses the unmet needs in the human services field and says: "The employment of non-professionals in helping services must begin with job definition." To determine appropriate roles requires more demonstration projects and he proposes an educational model with three levels--an aide, an assistant teacher and an associate teacher. To bring the utilization of nonprofessionals past the demonstration stage, subsequent demonstration must be conducted in the permanent agencies, although they may need to be supported by special and outside funds. Nonprofessionals already prepared by outside programs can be used as consultants and resources by the permanent programs. He urges that we move to larger and more comprehensive demonstrations with regular agency funds committed to the project.

Pruger, Robert, and Harry Specht. Working with Organizations to Develop "New Careers" Programs. Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek, California. October 1966. 52 pages.

This report analyzes organizational and professional resistance to the use of nonprofessionals. It discusses factors which tend to make organizations more or less resistant, and strategies for overcoming such resistance.

The most likely employers of new careerists (public schools, social service bureaus, medical services, etc.) are the ones most often accused of poor communication with low-income communities. Within organizations there is a pressure for the way a job gets done and it can become more important than the objective itself. The poor have a vastly different style.

Organizational discipline reinforces professional discipline and leads to an insistence that only those trained a special way have the necessary skills. The use of nonprofessionals blurs this line and works toward breaking down the notion that only professionals can decide what is best.

Experience has indicated that the more an organizational staff is differentiated and specialized, the less the resistance. For example, hospitals with their great variety of job categories will probably absorb new careerists more easily than police departments. Another factor appears to be the degree to which an organization is related to the community from which clients and new careerists are drawn. The more closely related, the better the chances for developing new careers, and they are especially favorable when an organization seeks to improve its relationship with the community.

Ideology can have an effect. Those organizations offering social services of a rehabilitative nature are more promising than those offering social controls or punishment. But this can depend on the interpretation and behavior of the administration.

On balance, in all organizations there is considerable ambivalence toward the nonprofessional, but they are more likely to be accepting if they are assured of their own capacity to control the behavior of these new workers. The ability to overcome this resistance is hampered by a lack of information on successful experiences. Reports are usually characterized by incomplete descriptions and vague definitions. Planners must guard against making foolhardy concessions in order to get a program established. For example, allowing an organization to have a strong control in selection and thus eliminating all but the "cream" of applicants, or permitting the organization to define the new careerist as temporary or less than a full employee, or to use him only in peripheral tasks or in functions isolated from the central operation--all of these are concessions which should not be made.

Care must be taken with the job description. It should not be so specific that it weds the nonprofessional to a series of low level tasks, or so vague that it has no organizational visibility.

To prevent the idea from being dismissed at the outset, planners must study the organization to be able to suggest how the plan can be implemented without placing a strain on already over-burdened supervisory personnel. They must be able to indicate what the nonprofessional can contribute, and what actual problems exist and how to deal with them. Otherwise planners may get no further than agreement on the general principle of new careers.

Some useful tactics are found in the employment of a few nonprofessionals to gain acceptance for others. Many professionals experience a delighted shock when they see low-income people perform capably or speak well. Once accepted, an important ingredient is the provision for independent program evaluation.

Riessman, Frank. "The 'Helper' Therapy Principle." Reprint. Social Work. Volume 10, Number 2. April 1965. pages 27-32.

A brief article stating the social and psychological principles involved in the self-help role, giving examples of its utilizations.

"While it may be uncertain that people receiving help are always benefited, it seems more likely that people giving help are profiting from their role." (p 27) Most evidence in support of the self-help principle is uncontrolled and observational. The helper principle is especially useful however, with low-income groups. It offers an upward spiral of ability to deal with problems by helping others and thus increases the helper's efficiency. Leadership can be developed through playing a helper's role. To prevent the projection of the helper's problems, he should not be involved in intensive treatment at the outset, and should be under close professional supervision.

Riessman, Frank. "The New Anti-Poverty Ideology." Teachers College Record. Volume 68, Number 2. November 1966. pages 107-119.

The anti-poverty movement represents the possibilities of integrating the best of professional systems with the informal systems of the poor. A general statement of Riessman's principles--the relation of the nonprofessional idea to the self-help movement, to the representation of the poor, to civil rights, etc. It calls for careers, rights, and participation, not merely jobs.

Riessman, Frank. "New Possibilities: Services, Representation and Careers." Paper prepared for Planning Session for the White House Conference To Fulfill These Rights. Washington, D.C. November 17-18, 1965. mimeo. 21 pages.

An analysis of the participation of the poor in anti-poverty movements suggesting ways to provide not only jobs but careers.

The unwillingness of the poor to avail themselves of services and opportunities has been interpreted as apathy, but the poor have their own informal systems and traditions which they have developed in order to cope. Only through the utilization of these traditions of informal know-how and self-help can the poor be brought into the society. The author discusses the pros and cons of anti-poverty legislation considering as a significant factor, the use of the consumer as a participant. The importance goes beyond insuring appropriate delivery of traditional services; it includes political participation, a basic opportunity from which the poor have been deprived. A second important factor is the principle of utilizing the nonprofessional and the professional as a team. The anti-poverty approach unifies the informal know-how of the nonprofessional with the systematic knowledge of the professional.

Riessman notes that the 70,000 nonprofessionals employed by OEO represent the "cream" of applicants, and this, with significant employment funded under OEO, represented approximately 5% of the new jobs created in the economy in the past year. However, 500,000 such jobs could be created and it is now time to reach the hard-core unemployed. One area in which nonprofessionals could be employed is protection. Large numbers of police aides could play a major role in reducing acts of violence. Another area is in welfare departments, and a third is in the schools, where males especially could provide excellent models to disadvantaged children. To implement these needs, major institutional changes will be required in civil service requirements, in the crediting of on-the-job training, and in the development of enormous new training facilities.

The training of nonprofessionals should begin with on-the-job experience and avoid long periods of formal training. The training must be introduced in a functional manner as the job itself will stimulate interest in training. Basic education and skills needed by the trainees should not be seen as remedial. They should be viewed in a positive manner. New techniques for developing literacy call for building them into job structures. Reading skills should be developed during designated periods of the work day and not after hours, and should be functionally related to the job.

Riessman, Frank. The Revolution in Social Work: The New Nonprofessional. Mobilization For Youth. New York City. October 1963. mimeo. 55 pages.

This is an analysis of the special problems in the utilization of indigenous nonprofessionals and their special training needs. The discussion of training methodology is illustrated by actual materials used in training parent education aides at Mobilization For Youth. Considerable discussion is given to the need to avoid contamination of the nonprofessional by the professional.

In discussing recruitment the author identifies a basic problem which he calls the "Internal Caretaker Error". By this he means that most nonprofessionals recruited are the type who are accustomed to offer informal, friendly care to their neighbors (e.g., bartenders). The problem here is that these Internal Caretakers are market-oriented and always aim to please the client. The author recommends either avoiding recruiting this type or focusing training on reducing their narrow client-centered and market orientation. At the outset, Mobilization For Youth saw the aide as a bridge between the agency and the community with only one-way communication: aides were to educate parents about the school.

Nonprofessionals also tend to underestimate their value and are timid about applying. The recruiter must be sure to tell all recruitment offices the purposes of hiring the nonprofessional and the kinds of recruits desired. The word must be spread informally as well as formally and care must be taken to define the job in ways attractive and understandable to low-income people. Action-oriented people are preferred to the listener type. No over-emotional people or gossipers should be hired. The "internal caretaker" type should be avoided. One attribute desired might be designated as militancy but its relevance depends on the type of job. For example, militancy is not especially useful to the homemaker aide. Middle-class aspirations should not automatically rule out individuals. Each indigenous nonprofessional has his strengths and weaknesses. The important question is how they are to be trained and directed.

The talents of the nonprofessional are: a militant and action-centered approach, enthusiasm for the job, lower-class know-how, and an easy relationship with clients. With proper training they can provide leadership to group action and can be trained as organizers.

Problems occurring in the use of nonprofessionals are: confidentiality, overidentification with the agency, acceptance of authority, overoptimism which turns to defeatism, and relationships with professionals. The author recommends methods to strengthen the relationship between professionals and nonprofessionals such as a careful definition of role, and preparation and training of nonprofessionals before initial contact with professionals. Tasks such as canvassing the neighborhood and talking informally to members of the community can be used as on-the-job training at once. Practice in talking with professionals is needed before the actual experience; in this instance, role-playing is especially helpful.

Training is important to professionalize the work of the nonprofessional but not to professionalize them. The nonprofessional can be "contaminated" by being trained by professionals, by associating with professionals in the agency, by their status in the agency which requires identification with professional models, and by searching for a career line. To avoid this, training should be based on lower-class norms and traditions.

Appropriate training methods include: 1) team training to build up esprit de corps; 2) assigning trainees to work together to provide the security of a group setting; 3) maintaining individuality of the nonprofessional style; 4) using as trainers those recruited from professional ranks who have an affinity for, or a similarity to, the nonprofessional in background, attitude or style and who have an ability to teach; 5) minimizing formal training.

An ideal tactic for training the nonprofessional is to give him an assignment immediately and simply supply the directions. This reduces contamination by professionals, but at the expense of training. The paper contains a training methodology for parent-education aides, noting the importance of role-playing and group assignment (pp 47-54). The author emphasizes the need to be explicit in training. Some of the principles he advances are: 1) use many illustrations; 2) state assumptions clearly; 3) materials should be repeated frequently; 4) details should be carefully spelled out; 5) maintain a slow nonpressured atmosphere with as few digressions as possible and frequent summaries; 6) the content should be definite and well-structured; 7) the participation of all learners should be sought; 8) concepts and theory can be taught provided their relationship to experience and practice is constantly pointed out; 9) clear basic language should be used with careful definition of all complex works.

Tips are given to the parent-aide for contacting and relating to people (p 53).

Riessman, Frank. Strategies and Suggestions for Training Nonprofessionals. Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Program. New York City. n.d. mimeo. 11 pages.

A general description of the varieties of nonprofessionals, their personal characteristics, and some of the general principles of training them.

There are several major types of jobs among the indigenous nonprofessionals employed under the Economic Opportunit Act. These include: 1) the expediters who link the people and the agency;

2) the direct service agent, such as the homemaker or teacher's aide; 3) the community organizer or neighborhood worker whose function is to involve the resident of the area in community planning and community action. A major agency model is the Neighborhood Service Center, characterized by a high ratio of nonprofessionals to professionals and with a base of action on the home "turf" of the nonprofessional. A second model is the attachment to a service agency such as the Welfare or Health department. Between these models are different ideologies concerning the utilization of the nonprofessional. Training and supervisory staff should consider the base of operation whether in the community or in an agency--the ideology connected with the use of nonprofessionals and the ratio of professional to nonprofessional. Treating nonprofessionals as significant new workers or merely utilizing them as assistants to professionals because the funding was available must be considered.

Characteristics of nonprofessionals are diverse: they are not always friendly or cooperative; they vary in commitment; they are frequently competitive with professionals; they are also aware of the new ideology regarding the nonprofessional, which engenders overconfidence and when combined with training, might make them feel smarter than the professionals; some can imaginatively function on several levels. Nonprofessionals have some negative characteristics which may interfere with the effective helper role, e.g., moral indignation, punitiveness, suspicion, and the inability to understand the need for confidentiality.

Training must address itself to both positive and negative characteristics: 1) before planning a specific training program it is necessary to determine priorities--the minimum knowledge that is needed quickly in order to perform on the job; 2) avoid giving too much information lest you upset and disorganize the trainee; 3) most training should be on the job--this needs careful phasing of tasks, for example, the Lincoln Mental Health Aide first does simple expediting for which he needs information-gathering skill, a knowledge of various agencies, and how to contact them; the second phase requires the ability to conduct meetings and develop groups, etc., aimed at developing diverse organizing skills.

Pre-job training should be oriented primarily toward performing the simplest entry task adequately, e.g., interviewing a client having difficulty with the Welfare Department needs some basic interviewing skills. How to contact the Welfare Department and how to record the transaction can be learned on the job. The pre-job training can use case studies, role-playing, anecdotes, and simulation. In on-the-job training the aide can learn from peers and supervisors, and group meetings can systemetize the training.

Sexton, Brendan. Participation of the Poor. New York University Graduate School of Social Work. Center for the Study of Unemployed Youth. New York City. February 1966. 12 pages.

Involvement of the poor must begin with the informal systems of self help already in existence in slum areas. We must try to make these systems more effective by helping them and training them to develop that which they want to do within their own organizations. Organizations of the poor can operate pre-school or after-school centers, health education programs, consumer education programs, recreation activities, etc. Groups have learned how to run meetings, negotiate, administer contracts, etc. Organizations of the poor may need professional help but they can choose their own professionals and establish the ground rules within which the professionals will work. Trade unions of nonprofessional aides can quickly become organizational arms of community action and effective spokesmen for the poor. As nonprofessionals are given jobs in public agencies, they will begin to develop the confidence needed to articulate their own needs.

Shaffer, Anatole, and Harry Specht. Training the Poor for New Careers. Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek, California. March 1966. 57 pages.

This is the fifth in a series of reports of the Richmond Community Development Demonstration Project describing orientation and training programs developed by the project to provide a group of "New Careerists" with some of the skills and information needed for their jobs. Useful for a discussion of basic principles of training of the poor based on experience, and for the job description contained in the appendix. Included among these nonprofessional jobs are those in conjunction with police departments, school districts, University of California research centers, and organizers with indigenous groups. The project employed 16 nonprofessionals.

In the introductory materials the report sights the historical precedence in social work for the use of nonprofessionals in such roles as club leaders, case aides, visitors, psychiatric aides, etc. The program enumerates as its goals: 1) to support the indigenous organization; 2) to develop new caretaker roles in relation to new as well as existing organizations; 3) to establish new career roles in the public agencies serving the poor, with special emphasis on the possibilities of institutionalizing such roles. The ultimate hope is to support agency changes in the organization of services for low-income peoples. The project established formal contractual relationships with the police department and school districts although supervisory responsibilities for the new careers job performance rested with those agencies. In addition, the project made public statements to legislatures and citizens' groups emphasizing the need for career innovation.

Nonprofessionals were recruited through the Department of Employment and notices sent to all churches, social agencies, probation and parole offices, civil rights and other organizations. Known leaders of the target area were also contacted. They received over 200 applications for the 16 jobs. A significant number of applicants indicated that they had received news of the job informally by word of mouth. Of the 16 hired, 10 were women; 4 were professionals--a teacher, a licensed nurse, a minister, a recreation leader, and 12 had prior experience only as domestics or unskilled workers; 9 had junior college training, 1 was a college graduate and 3 had completed high school, only 3 had less than 4 years of high school; all were Negro.

The jobs were not designed merely as an extension of the professional but rather as an attempt to create new jobs not previously performed by professionals in the institutions and in the community. New workers participated in job preparation experiences at the project offices for several weeks before work at the agency to which they were assigned. Basic training experience provided them with factual information about the job, the project and the agencies' expectations and goals. It provided actual and simulated work experiences immediately following their employment. The report suggests that this basic training approach provides a protective setting for dealing with new workers' fears and anxieties. It allows time to develop self-confidence through actual and simulated work tasks, and prevents the worker from getting stale or disabled by anxiety during long periods of training. The workers learned about and observed agencies and government structures from a worker's viewpoint rather than simply as the recipient of service. It is the view of this report that work tasks are a better learning method for the undereducated. Time was allowed to deal with practical problems faced by workers such as the need for appropriate clothing, arrangements for children, and family care. This pre-job period also gave the host agency time to prepare for new workers. The basic training period extended over a period of ten weeks. Eight to twelve hours a week were given over to agency visits, followed by group discussions of the range of services and any new perspective gained by those who previously had visited these agencies as clients. This period also helped staff to assess possible roles for the nonprofessionals. Each trainee acted as a recorder for one visit; this was useful to the project in developing and assessing writing skill. The staff noted that with succeeding visits the workers' participation increased. They began to ask questions of the agency staff about discrepancies between stated policies and actual practices.

New workers were taught research skills by conducting household interviews; this was a good example of specific tasks, defined limits, and training by doing. The research staff used role-playing and individual and group supervision to help workers complete the interviews. The trainees not only gained experience with interview schedules, initiating contacts with strangers, and conducting extensive interviews, but it also gave residents of the area an opportunity to meet the workers in their new roles. The use of the trainees in research activities was not without its problems. The residents were hostile to the research and the training failed to prepare workers to deal with the hostility. Also, the research goals were too remote from the workers' immediate working needs. In addition, some workers were too illiterate to do the work. This experience suggests strongly that the early stages of pre-vocational training must be tailored to individual needs and capacities.

Trainees also were given short-term job assignments; they served as recruiters for other projects, for example, recruiting youth for a program of dialogues between police and youth. As preparation for this there was role-playing of visits to youth and their parents, how to talk to them, what to talk about, how to ask questions. Out of the role-playing came the convictions by the workers themselves that they must be natural in speech and in dress, must be clear and answer frankly, and be sure to give accurate information about the project.

Field observation of the area was another part of the basic training. Although the trainees are residents of the area, few were conscious of the physical and social features. They were assigned to make written and verbal reports covering the condition of houses, the open spaces, the number and characteristics of people. These reports were followed by group discussion to develop understanding. Group meetings were another feature of the basic training period. These were designed to build an esprit de corps, and to develop shared values, attitudes, and goals needed to do the job. They also provided specific skill training in group work: leading group discussions, speaking to a group, handling conflicts, writing minutes, etc.

Following the basic training and assignment on jobs, in-service training continued. The project considers that it would be desirable, although not always possible, to develop all levels of training in relation to, and in conjunction with, the host agency. In-service training included: orientation to the physical facilities, the administrative and agency structure of the host agency, and the tasks the worker would perform. This was accomplished by combining elements of traditional agency training with elements especially designed for the nonprofessional. For example, the community relations aide for the police department participated in part of the regular police training, specifically those aspects concerned with note-taking, integration, community relations, and demonstrations.

They also rode with patrols, studied laws, read police reports, and observed in court.

It is clear that the traditional training offered by agencies needs special adaptation from the apprenticeship model, or from reliance on formal training institutions. Both assume the existence of a tested and well-defined career line. The apprenticeship model is suitable because it provides more on-the-job training. Traditional training also must be modified because it normally gives insufficient attention to training professionals to work with nonprofessionals. The training included attendance at staff meetings to maintain group unity, exchange information, and share experiences. This is important as a transitional step between the pre-vocational basic training taken as a group and individual assignments.

In-service training also included seminars to deal with abstract and theoretical materials. These were kept to a bare minimum during the basic training period. Seminars are being planned to develop a body of training materials for 10 sessions of 2 hours each. A series of institutes and conferences are planned. Suggested training techniques are included:

1. Role-playing is the best learning technique. It is essentially a learning-by-doing method, and develops the ability to initiate conversation and to involve people in group discussions. For good role-playing, the job needs to be clearly defined and each trainee needs experience with all roles in the situation. The same situation should be repeated frequently in the training to allow application of new skills. Each role-playing sequence should be discussed and should be done before an audience. Role-playing ideally should preceed a real assignment identical with the simulated one.

2. Audio-visual material; for example, films used to follow-up field trips. Written materials were used sparingly, and were mostly newspapers used to train aides in learning about community issues. Books were used only in the later stages of training. Movies, plays, and television are helpful, if pertinent. Lists of books and films used are included (p 41).

3. Written and oral reports are an important part of the training. The emphasis is on accuracy and clear communication. Poor grammar and idiomatic usage are of lesser concern and handled only when they inhibit communication.

4. Individual supervision. This is important for the experience it provides in one-to-one relationships. Individual conferences need to be carefully planned to develop the worker's ability in this setting.

From the experience, certain basic training principles emerged: 1) training must be job related; abstractions can be dealt with after the worker has performed concrete tasks and can relate theory to actual experiences; 2) training must be related to job phasing and should build to a series of climaxes; 3) real work of limited responsibility is helpful; 4) plenty of time must be provided for frank discussion; 5) the worker's role must be clearly differentiated from the client role; 6) training should reflect commitment to, and support for, change.

Thursz, Daniel, and Richard Bateman. "New Uses of Personnel in Group-Service Agencies." The Social Service Review. Volume 38. June 1964. Pages 137-146.

An article stressing the need for careful delineation of expectations for volunteers and other non-professionals.

U.S. Department of Labor. Office of Manpower, Automation and Training. The Indigenous Worker in Manpower Projects. August 20, 1964. mimeo. 8 pages.

A paper noting the value of the indigenous nonprofessional as a recruiter for projects dealing with the disadvantaged.

Youth Opportunities Board of Greater Los Angeles. A Proposal for Resident Participation Through Employment Opportunities in Community Action Programs. November, 1964. mimeo. 55 pages.

This is a description of the population of the Watts and other target areas in Los Angeles. The proposal outlines jobs in family and childcare, health and welfare, education, leisure time activities, clerical services, protection, and information. Appendix I gives job descriptions for several jobs in each category. The content of training suggests that in-service programs be focused on and should include: 1) general knowledge of the problem area; 2) programs and their goals; 3) low income culture; 4) specific job techniques; 5) professional functions and ways of collaborating with professionals.

B. COMMUNITY ACTION

Barry, Frank. The Role of the Community Development Worker. Community Development Foundation Training Division. Norwalk, Connecticut and New York. February 10, 1966. 9 pages.

A description of the community worker role in stimulating small villages in Latin America to develop needed improvement projects (somewhat analogous to the Peace Corps).

The job does not demand highly educated or specialized skills to deal with the countries' rural people. It demands instead a natural person who can respond on the basis of friendly equality. The worker must get acquainted with the village, gather information, and make contacts, not necessarily through official channels but through informal associations. He must learn to stay in the background and get others to participate.

Borden, David, et al. Community Development Training. Volume III. Block Communities, Inc. New York City. n.d. mimeo. paging various.

This is a group of papers related to the training of community workers. The first paper describes training for a block worker. The second discusses training philosophy. The third discusses the training of trainers. Emphasis is on the conception that people have to solve their problems and not blame the environment. Especially useful is the last section with transcripts of group discussions which can be used as case discussions.

Skill training is useless if the trainee lacks the confidence to learn and the persistence to follow through on the learning. This is true for all levels including university graduates. When skills are the sole focus, there is always a high dropout rate. Good training should be the way of letting the strong help the weak to become strong.

The block worker who can unearth and utilize community potential is a highly skilled person. It is not enough for him to be an "insider," i.e., poor. Any person, from any background, who is intelligent and committed to democratic social change can be good if he is trained well. Training is a learning process evolving out of a dynamic group experience. The group is not lectured to but is led to educate itself.

Block Communities' Training Program is usually a four-month sequence, but each trainee is permitted to advance at his own rate. The organization also provides attitudinal training for nonprofessionals who work in neighborhood service centers, and for employees of city agencies.

Training consists of group discussions and role playing, field visits and on-the-block training. It is based on an existentialist view which denies that environment is the controlling factor. The block worker does not aspire merely to improve the physical neighborhood but rather to develop the inner strengths of the residents.

Selection is very difficult. Experience and education are not reliable indicators nor is "the wish to serve." Those who are critical, outspoken and hypersensitive may be the very ones who can be trained because they are already struggling for an identity. Those who have escaped poverty and wish to help allay their own guilt may well fail. Promotion is not based on the observance of rules and norms, but rather on a growth in identity and potential. Trainers should come from the ranks of the block-worker group.

The orientation program consists of a lecture giving information on the relationship of the trainee to his community followed by a question and discussion period about the job. Evaluation of trainees is based on attendance record, attitudes, and participation, whether positive or negative, in the group process.

Preliminary training emphasizes the awareness of what a slum community is--a self-protecting, self-perpetuating, "blame somebody else" kind of place. The trainer will move them to understand that the real problems are human problems, not lack of services. "Human beings are the ones that allow situations to occur because of their apathy or fear." The trainers avoid preaching or moralizing. Instead they push the group toward understanding themselves.

Trainers evaluate trainees for promotion to the next training step on the basis of their attitudinal growth during this phase. The next phase seeks to relate training experience to work on the block that needs to be done. This part of training deals with techniques: language, dress, and how to deal with people; resources of information and how to contact them; record keeping; planning a course of work; running meetings and making surveys. They use a variety of instructional methods including lectures, readings, films, etc., and all are discussed. Field work is introduced in which the trainee accompanies an experienced block worker.

At the next step, the trainees are provided with more work experience and with the opportunity to evaluate themselves. They also establish a working relationship with a supervisor.

Chicago Committee on Urban Opportunity. Training Division. Community Reperesentative Training. Chicago, Illinois. February 17, 1966. mimeo. 24 pages.

A suggested curriculum and guest speaker outline given in considerable detail. It includes sensitivity training in interviewing. This is a highly structured program. It heavily emphasizes knowledge of community resources. The schedule is for 20 days of training. It is mostly a list of topics and only the first few items give any feel of the content.

Hallman, Howard W. Planning with the Poor. Community Progress Inc. New Haven, Connecticut. December 1, 1964. mimeo. 41 pages.

The author describes resident participation in planning community action programs. The Populist-Democratic ideal finds expression in the involvement of the poor. But in actuality, even with the best efforts, resident participation involves only a small percent (and seldom the poorest) of the leaders and upwardly-mobile of the group. Planning is foreign to the poor who tend to be crisis-ridden and present-oriented. Plans tend to be made by representatives of a democractic elite. What is needed is a constant interchange between the planners and the participants, with continuing feedback and involvement.

The development of effective resident participation is a slow time-consuming process. It may take two years or more. The problems are complex and any new organization must work with existing agencies. For community action programs, planning must be seen as a political process. Any effort to organize the poor must include the mayor, the city council, and all elected and appointed local officials.

Among the poor it is possible to identify natural and effective leadership. Although organizations of the poor sometimes arise spontaneously, this generally requires organizers with considerable skill to identify leaders and choose the appropriate approach. Approaches can be varied from protest to proposal of a solution. If the organizer is an outsider he needs to be accepted. This requires intelligence, good judgment and the ability to handle controversy. The experience can come from work with settlement houses, civil rights groups, labor organizations, politics or similar groups. Not everyone can be a good organizer. Although some of the indigenous people employed in programs could be trained to be organizers, initially the organizers will have to come from the outside.

Neighborhood organizations are not the only means of resident participation. The poor can be hired as aides or assistants in the programs.

Henderson, George. Training Is Being Trained: Observations on Low-Income Leaders. Wayne State University. Delinquency Control Training Center. Detroit, Michigan. 1965. 28 pages.

A report based on interviews with Negro women in a Detroit low-income neighborhood association. Training was conducted under the guise of research--an indirect approach not threatening to the leaders. The author discusses the difficulties of attempting to employ leaders who have already found a leadership role.

Howard University. Center for Youth and Community Studies. Community Organization for Recreation Workers. Washington, D.C. 1964 (?). 26 pages.

This describes the highlights of the winter 1964, training program of volunteers from the Recreation Department's program staff (college men) for whom 64 hours of instruction was provided. A curriculum outline and sample lesson plans are furnished, as well as bibliographies on community organization and recreation. Case material of projects worked on by the trainees is also included.

Howard University. Center for Youth and Community Studies. Training Program for Neighborhood Workers. Training Report No. 2. Washington, D.C. April 1965. 17 pages.

This report describes a training program for neighborhood workers giving the class schedule, curriculum content and samples of group decision making. It reports a group discussion on the question of attendance. The report also enumerates typical supervisory problems.

Kestenbaum, Sara. Manual for the Selection and Entry Training of Neighborhood Workers. United Planning Organization. Washington, D.C. August 1965. 10 pages.

A brief guideline for training neighborhood workers and the enunciation of general principles.

The recruitment of neighborhood workers is done mainly through word of mouth in informal gathering places. Indications are that more women will apply, and if so, subsequent recruitment should attempt to redress the balance. Selection is best done by a joint committee of professional staff and board members. Individual or group interviews can be used. Selection teams need to meet and insure a common understanding. Interviewers should look for the ability to relate, to function, to understand, to generalize about problems, to think in terms of group solutions to common problems, and to have familiarity with neighborhood patterns and problems.

With respect to training, the first consideration is the training of staff. The trainer is the new worker's first contact, and very important. The orientation sessions are perhaps the most important. They set the mood, define the goals and expectations. At this time one discusses the philosophy, the reason for hiring aides, the jobs they are to do. Since learning-by-doing is necessary, simple assignments should be made with ample time allowed for discussion. For example, an aide could be asked to interview someone about the neighborhood, then meet with the trainer to discuss findings and methods. Orientation presentations can be made to a large group, but the group should then be subdivided for further discussion. This is effective for imparting general information about the agency's programs as well as for discussing personnel practices.

Classroom content should parallel on-the-job training. The author suggests two days in class, two days in the field and one day for conferring with supervisors, both individually and in groups. The classroom content might include current events (using newspapers as primary sources), ways of dealing with community problems, and analysis of the power structure in the community. Some materials and trips should focus on minority culture. Community resources can be dealt with by inviting representatives of health, police, welfare, etc., to explain their policies and procedures and to suggest guidelines of what to look for. Following the orientation period, on-the-job training should consist of making community contacts within a limited geographic area to describe the program. During the next few weeks the aide could begin to organize neighborhood groups, and hold meetings. Classroom teaching should include role playing and practice opportunities.

After a ten-week period, the aide is considered a full-time employee. In-service training should continue with one afternoon per week allowed for discussion of field visits, further education, and participation in outside civic groups. Periodic evaluation of work is necessary to find out what help the aide needs. There is a need to design research to establish criteria for measuring community change, the impact of the aide on the community, and the relevance of the training to job performance. Aides should participate in the design of this evaluation research.

MacLennan, Beryce, William L. Klein, and Jacob R. Fishman. "Issues in Training for Community Action." Paper presented at Conference on Training for Community Action in Urban Ghettoes. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 30-April 1, 1966. mimeo. 12 pages.

A paper describing the issues faced by CAP directors in instituting a training program, e.g., the choice of training organizations. The authors see training as a redesign of jobs and evaluation.

Moguloff, Melvin. "Training Indigenous Leaders for Political Action." Paper presented at Conference on Training for Community Action in Urban Ghettoes. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 30-April 1, 1966. mimeo. 13 pages.

The author sees the central task of training as a transmitting of techniques by which the indigenous worker not only helps people to get redress, but helps them to become a party to the action by which the need for redress will be eliminated or diminished. He argues against separating the functions of helping "victims" and securing changes in the system. To do this, the worker will not only need to know the resources and be able to educate clients and negotiate for them, but also will need to know the nature of organizational structures, who makes policy, how to form alliances, and how to deal with the establishment. He challenges the neighborhood context as it is generally presented. According to the author, nonprofessionals must argue the neighborhood's cause in the larger community. They must represent the neighborhood but not be confined to it. Workers must be taught the full meaning of being an agent: the constraints upon his action as well as the possibilities; when he needs a consensus before he can act, or when he can act first and ask questions later.

Office of Economic Opportunity. Community Action Program. Community Action: The Neighborhood Center. Washington, D.C. July 1966. 22 pages.

Describes the multi-purpose neighborhood center, its goals and problems, with suggestions for developing a plan to suit the needs of the community. The appendix gives general eligibility criteria under Section 205 of the Economic Opportunity Act and sources of information and technical assistance. The chapter entitled "Advantages of the Neighborhood Center" states the major problems and ways a center can respond to them. There is a brief statement of what outreach is and does. Other topics include decentralization of services and programs, coordination of services, modification and improvement of services, neighborhood involvement (self-help and group action). The statements are clear, but in general terms without concrete examples. They might serve as a basis of an outline for an instructor to be supplemented by case materials. There are also brief statements discussing how to assess and respond to neighborhood need, how to finance and staff a center, etc.

The staffing pattern of the center should encourage upward mobility by having more than one level of nonprofessional employment, and by making it possible for nonprofessionals to grow into professionals. Efforts should be made to build careers and not just jobs for the nonprofessionals.

Riessman, Frank, and Robert Reiff. The Indigenous Nonprofessional; A Strategy of Change in Community Action and Community Mental Health Programs. National Institute of Labor Education. New York. November 1964. 48 pages.

An analysis of the need for and use of the nonprofessional as liaison between professionals and low-income people. The report describes the characteristics of the indigenous nonprofessional which uniquely qualify him for human services, with special reference to jobs in the fields of community action and mental health. It describes a new role for the nonprofessional as an "expediter." It analyzes issues in the training and employment of indigenous nonprofessionals.

The traditional use of nonprofessionals has been as extensions of the professional, relieving the professional of some of his burden by doing the less technical aspects of the job. They are termed "ubiquitous nonprofessionals" and are normally recruited from middle-class housewives, college students, etc., and are distinguished from the "indigenous nonprofessionals" who provide services to the client rather than services to the professional. More recently, nonprofessionals have been used in a more creative way, especially in dealing with low-income groups: reaching the unreached. These are the indigenous nonprofessionals. They do not merely relieve the manpower shortage. They serve to bring services to those who need them but who do not now use these services.

Chapter II deals with the unique characteristics of the indigenous nonprofessional. First, with respect to social position, the indigenous worker shares a common background, language, ethnic origin, style and interests with the client, and is therefore more acceptable to the client. Because of what he is, there are things which he can do that professionals cannot do--maintain an informal relationship and become more deeply involved with the client. The indigenous nonprofessional has know-how in coping with agencies and the problems of poverty based on his former status as a client of the same agencies. He has the same style of life, that is, he tends to externalize causes rather than to look for internal causes, and he is more militant in his approach to solutions than the professional. He is especially motivated because he derives particular satisfaction from his helper role. The helper role is a form of therapy for him; he can help without implying patronage because he readily identifies with the client. To the nonprofessional, helping is part of a reciprocal process. He may need help someday from the very people he is serving. This practical, concrete relationship makes help easier to accept than the help offered by professionals.

Chapter III deals with jobs for indigenous nonprofessionals in Community Mental Health programs. The use of nonprofessionals as homemaker aides, child care aides, research aides, case aides, etc., represents the broadening of agency services. But something more is needed. What is needed is a worker whose primary concern is the service relationship between agencies and clients: someone who is responsible for bringing services and clients together. This is not a person who gives direct service, but rather one who sees to it that the service is given. This is what the report calls the "expediter" role.

In Chapter IV the expediter role is defined. It is generally assumed that all that is needed to serve a client is the appropriate referral, without the need to see that the client actually gets to the agency or service. The assumption is made that those who are motivated will follow through on the referral. This assumption needs to be reexamined with respect to the lower socio-economic client. He is discouraged by complex procedures, long waiting lists, etc. Agencies must take the responsibility to see that the client gets the needed service, it is not enough simply to refer him to that service. The expediter can provide the liaison between the client, the agency, and the outside resources. Models for this type of work already exist: service representatives of veterans organizations and union counselors in the labor movement. The original functions of these workers were to educate and inform their members of their rights and to negotiate some of the red tape of organizational life. The roles have been expanded as the associations moved into problems of health, education and welfare.

The expediter's tasks are enumerated as follows: 1) to maintain a roster of community resources; 2) to make contact with outside agencies; 3) to act as an instrument of inter-agency referral; 4) to follow-up to insure that client receives services; 5) to hear and handle client complaints; 6) to feed back to professionals information about available and needed resources. (pp 20-21) To do all this, the expediter must function as an interpreter, a negotiator, a lay attorney, an educator, an instructor and a helper. The expediter participates only indirectly in the direct services offered by the agency. This is in contrast with the case aide who is used in a healing capacity as companion, counselor, supporter and intervener. The case aide is a therapeutic agent. While the expediter is a service agent, he should not do direct therapy since this will devalue his role and confuse him and client. He should be a service finder and not a case finder.

Expediters can function outside agencies or within one agency. Perhaps the most relevant setting for the expediter is the multi-service agency. He should be oriented towards changing the system rather than providing special service for a favored few within the normal structure. The expediter can be a buffer for the agency and provide a kind of quality control.

Chapter V deals with the issues in training the nonprofessional. It recommends: 1) continuous on-the-job training beginning almost immediately. Long preparatory training is to be avoided because it tends to develop anxieties. Tasks must be spaced to be progressively more complex; 2) the emphasis should be on activity rather than lectures; 3) training must be offered to provide group solidarity; 4) there is a need for considerable informal, individual supervision; 5) the style of training must be down to earth. It is possible to present theory if it is presented clearly; 6) there should be freedom for the nonprofessional to develop his own style. A special need is that of providing practice in assuming authority. The indigenous nonprofessional has generally been on the other side of the picture. For example, he will need role-playing in how to lead a meeting before he can assume a position of authority in a real group.

There must be careful discussion of the need for confidentiality. Care must be taken also not to detach the nonprofessional from the community. There is a need to discuss a reasonable time-table to guard against defeatism which might set in if results are not forthcoming quickly. A further need is a careful definition of the role of the nonprofessional as distinct from the role of professionals. Practice in dealing with professionals provides an opportunity for role-playing. Ideally there should be provision for promotion of the nonprofessional within the job structure of the agency.

Chapter VI deals with recruitment and selection, and cautions against looking only for leaders. The recruiter should look for strength but not necessarily people most like the professionals. Interest and concern are all that is needed, good training can do the rest.

Specht, Harry. Community Development in Lower Income Areas: Its Relevance to Problems of the Negro Community. Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek, California. February, 1966. 49 pages.

From the first six months' experience in the Richmond (California) Community Development Project, the staff observed that: 1) the role changes required for indigenous community leaders can be eased by support and training; 2) that the informal style of communication characteristic of local and low-income groups helps them to cope with highly structured bureaucracies; 3) an interorganizational council is not accepted until the individual organizations have accepted the value of cooperation; and 4) the personal problems of leaders can be disruptive.

Significant proportions of all people, not only the poor, do not participate actively in community organization and only a small segment takes part in decision making. Many means must be employed to strengthen the whole fabric of life in low-income communities. It is not necessary always to take an anti-establishment stance; some agencies are responsive to the needs and demands of groups. Conflict is not the only approach which has meaning. Varied action models should be sought for community change. Different types of residents and different types of social problems call for different leadership, organization and strategies.

As a background for the Richmond Project, the report describes the internal Negro community structure. A major weakness has been the lack of instrumental organizations to express the interests and desires of groups. The primary Negro organization is the church. This institution has been grossly neglected as a potential agent of change by both research and action groups. Civil rights organizations have assumed great significance but generally in demonstrations.

The Richmond project aimed to develop social roles, service programs and organizational devices within the community to enable residents to deal with their own problems. This required stimulating resources within the community and close cooperation with government agencies. A principal means is the employment of indigenous personnel trained to work directly with existing community groups. The project also supplies materials, resources and staff facilities to aid local groups in the development of their own programs.

During the first six months, six individual programs have been mobilized, four with church groups, one with the tenants of a housing project, and one in the development of an indigenous community council. The content of the programs varied. The indigenous community council assists groups to generate new programs such as preschool, work-study, job counseling, and welfare information services.

The project plans to develop a training program for the community worker to include group work methods, political science, and administrative skills.

At the end of the report there is a bibliography of material on Negro community organization.

Specht, Harry. Urban Community Development: A Social Work Process.
Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek,
California. November 1966. 57 pages.

This pamphlet describes urban community development as a process through which informal, indigenous groups of residents are brought together to define, discuss and understand their problems with community institutions, and to develop an organization and program to deal with these problems within a legal-political framework. The author distinguishes community development from group work (primarily a therapeutic socialization process) and community organization (a process of enabling existing institutions to work together). He discusses the role of the professional community developer and the skills required.

During the first stage of the process the community developer identifies the community. This calls for the participant-observer methods used in anthropology and social research. The workers must respond to the immediate needs of the residents and provide resources and support. Although the necessity to respond immediately is unavoidable, it carries the danger of committing the worker to individuals, groups or organizations prematurely.

Because early stages of community development probably will not involve large numbers of people, the worker's job is to broaden the participation through informal contact, through meetings to bring together leaders and representatives of several small organizations, or through informal residents' meetings. Generally the problems identified by the group will be local, limited in duration and aimed at achieving immediate and visible change. The worker's function is to question the larger institutional arrangements which give rise to these problems--e.g., the legal and political structure which gives rise to poor services to tenants in a housing project.

The next phase includes building an organizational structure and developing leadership. Organizations may be of many types (brokerage, self help, ad hoc). Leaders are not all without self-interest, and community development is not necessarily free from internal power struggles.

Developing a strategy is the next step and the worker's role is to help the organization see the relationship of its actions to long-range societal change. Participation of residents is not an end in itself but rather a means. The view of the community developer must be that social change does not aim at the rule of society by any particular class, but at achieving representation through intermediation of groups of citizens and by stimulating individual and intellectual aptitudes for criticism and control.

Wood, Clarence E. "The Social Work Aide as a Community Organizer in Project ENABLE." Paper presented at the Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare. Employing Staff from the Client Group: New Developments. New York City. October 1966. pages 20-29.

Project ENABLE plans 100 projects in 32 states, employing 300 professionals and nonprofessionals. The aim is to train staff in group work, community organization, to strengthen family life, and prevent breakdowns. It offers family-life education and leadership training. The technique is to bring parent groups together 1½ hours a week for eight to ten weeks to discuss and determine the form of action they want. The staff consists of a community organizer (professional), a group leader (professional), and a social work aide (nonprofessional), who is a helper to the professionals. The expectation is that aides will have a distinct role and not be just helpers or errand boys. Their job is to assist the professionals in developing parent groups, recruiting parents, participating in data collection and research, and assisting in the interpretation of the project to the community.

Requirements for the aides is that they be at least 21 years of age, be able to read, write and understand instructional material, and to have some work in local church, school or civic organizations. Good verbal skills, particularly the ability to speak so that others will understand (in some communities they will need to be bilingual) is a necessity. The aide must be interested in helping people and be able to develop business-like relationships. He must have a capacity to convey interest, listen, and elicit responses. He must have ingenuity to devise and create approaches and the capacity to tolerate frustration. And he must have time for the job.

Yankelovich, Daniel Inc. A Study of the Nonprofessional in the CAP. Office of Economic Opportunity. Washington, D.C. September 1966. 176 pages.

A study of CAP nonprofessionals in nine cities (New Haven, Atlanta, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Los Angeles, Washington, Chicago, and St. Louis, as well as a pre-test in Newark). The focus is primarily on the community worker. The general findings are that most nonprofessionals in CAP's work full-time, are Negro females, and are not the hard core poor. Most had completed high school. Two-thirds had been unemployed or under-employed; more than half had no prior relevant work experience. The major job category--Community Aide--is defined as performing recruitment and referral work.

The survey finds that the major strength of these workers is their high morale. No significant difference was found in the performance of "hard-core" versus the community-leader type in these programs. This suggests that "creaming" is not necessary. Also there was relatively little overt friction between professionals and nonprofessionals. Resistance of professionals manifests itself mainly in the scant training and supervision given, and the reluctance to delegate work responsibilities to nonprofessionals. On the negative side, there is the "female only" tendency, insufficient training, inadequate supervision, the destructive effects of job insecurity, a tendency to fire no one irrespective of performance, and mixed objectives and lack of clear goals.

The writers recommend more concrete division of efforts between staff with respect to training and supervision of nonprofessionals. Specifically they suggest developing a category of upgraded nonprofessionals to serve in an intermediate capacity between the professional and the untrained nonprofessional. They feel that the upgraded nonprofessionals will enhance the program, provide more objective screening and evaluation, and could prove to be the backbone of the program. They further recommend that a central agency be established to administer the nonprofessional programs in each city or region; that this central body recruit, select, train, supervise and evaluate nonprofessionals rather than delegating this to CAA's, city organizations, or other operating agencies. Recruitment should be the explicit task of nonprofessionals themselves. They do not recommend broad publicity of nonprofessional jobs because they expect the number of such openings to be limited. The selection process they feel is adequate for the small numbers involved, but group screening may be a useful technique. Centralizing selection procedures may result in better interviewing and in reducing the time lag between application and selection.

With respect to training they see five serious deficiencies at present: 1) responsibility for training in most CAA's has not been delegated to, or assumed by, anyone in the programs; 2) the initial indoctrination methods vary, and are not geared to maximize the nonprofessional's chances for success; 3) most training does not go beyond initial indoctrination or orientation; 4) professionals are insufficient in number, and lack both time and capacity to provide training; 5) no training is provided for upgrading the nonprofessional.

They recommend: 1) that training be centralized in a federal agency in each city, or regionally for small communities, with a local director of training responsible for the development, monitoring, record keeping, and material development as well as being a source of information for regional and national administrations; 2) that training content include: a) a limited orientation period of two weeks in a central training location, because the number hired at any given time may be too small in each program; b) that this orientation period be directed by specially-trained trainers;

c) the orientation content should include administrative procedures--hours, pay, forms to be filled out, relationship to professionals, confidentiality, handling of sensitive issues, handling of religious or political matters--to be accomplished by role-playing and simulation; d) orientation should also make use of a reference manual as a basic tool-- a written manual could be the key to the success of the orientation period.(The study shows that there has been difficulty with written materials currently provided to nonprofessionals in their initial training period and "urges that a reference manual be developed as a basic tool for the nonprofessional, be pretested, and that all nonprofessionals be trained to use it effectively.")

Following the orientation period the second phase of training should be an initial field work experience from 8-12 weeks. Here the nonprofessionals should be directed by an upgraded nonprofessional responsible for breaking in new people. This relationship with another nonprofessional will give the new worker more confidence, and an opportunity to choose the kind of work he wants to do. The upgraded nonprofessional can provide supervision during the first 3 months. The advantages of being able to discuss problems with a peer who is relatively knowledgeable could result in freer discussion than would obtain with professionals.

The third phase is ongoing training which should continue throughout the first year and consist of training by professionals using case histories, films, tapes, etc., which could be built into a field kit. This kit could be designed by the central CAA office. Weekly seminars should be held to cover problems of dealing with nonresponsive families, relationships with other organizations, etc.

The fourth phase of training should be educational and accreditation; that is, methods for absorbing nonprofessionals into industry or the professions. This report emphasizes industry. The object is to make nonprofessional jobs stepping stones or training grounds for outside employment. To do this there is a need to involve employers; to get them to close the gap between hiring requirements and the needs of people, and to slow the trend toward the raising of entry requirements, especially those unnecessary for performance of the job. The need is also to give special attention to Negroes. For example, the approach of the National Association of Marketing Organizers, a fairly new organization dedicated to the advancement of Negroes in industry is appropriate. This organization could be an intermediary between the nonprofessional in CAA programs and potential employers in industry, to plan and execute training programs for nonprofessionals in specific marketing jobs. There is also a need for the cooperation of large corporations which are increasingly aware of their social responsibility, and will cooperate if approached in the right way.

Major innovations in education and accreditation of adults can be spurred by OEO with special curricula designed in close collaboration with potential employers. This can be administered by existing educational institutions so that accreditation can be given. Credit should be given for life experience tasks, e.g., for skills in dealing with people, organizing and running meetings, etc. Maximum use of new educational technology is needed, as are new formats for increased part-time study. Access to this educational avenue should be a reward to CAP aides since it is unlikely that they will get higher salaries inside or outside their programs. Private foundations might sponsor such programs.

There is a need to prepare from 50-100 special city or regional trainers. They should be drawn from professional ranks, and should start immediately to train the most promising nonprofessionals. OEO already has training specialists scattered around who would need little special training for this role. The nonprofessionals might be trained jointly by OEO and a university or industrial training institute. OEO could focus on program needs, and outside institutions on how to assist the professions, how to measure the trainees' understanding, etc. Upgrading of nonprofessionals should consist of approximately four weeks of training, and the content should include providing one-to-one support for new workers. They should meet with similar groups on a regional basis as a kind of fringe benefit and to share ideas.

Supervision and evaluation are major problems. Centralizing them in a local CAA director would help, as would the use of the upgraded nonprofessionals. A record should be maintained on each aide.

Other recommendations are: that higher salaries are needed to attract more men, and they should be upgraded to at least five or six thousand dollars a year; that assistant professional roles be created by upgrading the nonprofessionals through continuing education and accreditation; that once responsibility for instruction and evaluation of the nonprofessionals is vested in a central body, it should be able to dismiss workers for incompetence and not keep everybody working just for the sake of working.

On the basis of evidence in the study, it is shown that the use of nonprofessionals creates a new leadership group, bridges the gap between professionals and clients, and expedites the use of available facilities. It offers great job satisfaction in relatively low-paying jobs. The assumption that programs can absorb and train people under more controlled conditions than industry can is not confirmed. Programs lack the training, supervision and standardization of jobs that industry has. There is insufficient evidence to support assumptions that nonprofessionals effect changes in existing institutions, provide role models for youth, or convert community needs into effective demands.

With respect to obstacles that were anticipated, there was less resistance by professionals and no major problems for nonprofessionals in assuming their roles. For example, the problem of assuming authority was minimized by the fact that there was little authority to assume. There were no problems encountered with nonprofessionals around confidentiality, nor did they become over-identified with the agency. The need for remediation was limited because most nonprofessionals hired were high school graduates. Anxiety was not a big problem. Rigidity in carrying out specific tasks was a major problem. The most frequent criticism of the nonprofessional centered on the inability to cope with the unanticipated. Although the job itself is challenging and not dead-end in this sense, the insecurity, the lack of clear-cut links to outside jobs, and the lack of internal upgrading, makes the dead-end question very real. There was little overt local political opposition to the programs or intervention in the sense of using the jobs for patronage. The unanticipated defects were: the relatively few men enrolled, the lack of performance standards, the uncertain future and the ambiguous goals. Programs must decide whether they want to employ the hard-core or attract the "cream," upgrade the proficient or spread their funds through part-time work, or develop either generalists or specialists.

In conclusion the report finds that the programs and concepts are generally sound, that they work better than merely giving people servicies. Self-help does change a person's self-esteem. But there are obstacles to institutionalizing the nonprofessional role, and these are formidable. The recommendations for training consist of a four-stage, centralized program, including a written manual and a field kit.

Part II gives statistical data on the nine cities included in the study.

C. EDUCATION

Bank Street College of Education. Some Profiles of Demonstration Training Programs. New York. 1966 (?). mimeo. paging various.

This report contains descriptions of programs training teacher aides and teachers, including: 4-week institutes at Jackson State College, Mississippi, for teams of teacher aides; an 8-week teacher aide training program sponsored by New York University in District 4 Manhattan; a Detroit public school program to train 40 teacher aide-teams in a 6-week summer program; and a Garland Junior College program.

Of special interest is the Detroit program. Auxiliary personnel have been employed in that city by schools for a few years. In February 1966, a large number were incorporated into the school system through demonstration funding. The program aimed to explore the division of functions and examine needed changes in institutional structures.

Bowman, Garda W., and Gordon J. Klopf. Auxiliary School Personnel: Their Roles, Training, and Institutionalization. Bank Street College of Education. New York City. October 1966. 12 pages.

A report based on visits to eleven demonstration projects using teacher aides. The report comments on the lack of preparation of both nonprofessionals and professionals and recommends that such programs when initiated be established as an integral part of the system with each step on a career ladder defined.

Employment of nonprofessionals in schools increased sharply in the 1960's but frequently as part of a crash program. The essential component of preparation was frequently lacking, not only for the nonprofessionals, but, even more importantly, for the teachers and professionals with whom they would be working. This was true for all eleven programs conducted during the summer of 1966.

The rationale for using nonprofessionals is discussed, especially the use of indigenous personnel in schools serving disadvantaged neighborhoods.

The problems encountered by principals include the whole process of setting up a new hierarchy with job descriptions, orienting teachers and others to utilize these helpers, and determining who should train both professionals and nonprofessionals. All of this had to be accomplished within, and often in spite of, institutional rigidities.

Professional resistance evidenced itself in worry over the nonprofessional taking over, and questioning whether funds would have been better used to employ more professionals. Many teachers were not accustomed to supervisory roles. The aides were also resentful, sometimes feeling that they did the same job as the teachers for much less pay.

It became evident that understanding roles is a complex process. Based on the summer experience the report recommends: 1) that roles be clearly defined and seen in relation to role development. This requires a reexamination of all teaching functions; 2) that pre-service training for all staff is necessary, including some field experience in which professionals and nonprofessionals try out and evaluate their teaching approaches under close supervision; 3) that continued in-service training be provided with mechanisms for process observation and feedback; 4) that the cooperation of community colleges be sought in the development of programs for nonprofessionals to move them into roles requiring more knowledge and skills than at entry level; 5) that four-year colleges provide teacher education for nonprofessionals who desire to advance to professional status; and 6) that teachers' colleges should be incorporated into the curriculum and expand their role concept of the teacher to include a supervisory function.

Most programs were aware that jobs were not stable or at best dead-end, and that this would lead to frustration. They were aware also for the need to institutionalize roles. It is recommended that when a school system decides to use nonprofessionals, the program be set up as an integral part of the system, not as an adjunct, with goals and procedures completely and carefully delineated, cooperative planning with community and higher learning institutions, and with each step on a career ladder specified. There is need for both quantity and quality supervision to be evaluated. A suggestion is that an advisory committee of school personnel and community representatives with outside consultants be established to provide independent evaluation.

Office of Economic Opportunity. Community Action Program. Community Action: The Nonprofessional in the Educational System. Washington, D.C. July 1966. 20 pages.

A pamphlet prepared for those planning to develop a community action program. Describes training programs in progress, discusses tasks nonprofessionals can perform, and explains how an agency can organize and operate a training group. Discusses problems of the deprived child (the lack of home preparation, poor language skills, limited experiences, etc.). The nonprofessional is offered a new career and bridges the gap between the schools, children, and the parents. The pamphlet also outlines OEO funding and eligibility criteria.

Nonprofessionals are effective only if adequate training is provided for them and for the teachers as well. The training program requires a preliminary stage of planning which should be a joint venture by trainers and future employers. The content depends on the group to be served, their ages, background and programs. The aides can perform general school functions including educational tasks and work with parents.

Aides selected should be members of the community, healthy and emotionally stable, and interested in children. Experiments have shown that "problem" people can be used. Aides can be of almost any age and there are no set educational levels needed; ability is not necessarily indicated by educational attainment.

Pre-service training, jointly given with teachers is useful. It needs to include instruction in child development, methods and materials, and provide work experience and opportunities for observation. This can be made a part of a summer program. In-service training is also essential, e.g., workshops, lectures, etc. And a career ladder should be provided.

Pruger, Robert. The Establishment of a "New Careers" Program in a Public School. Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek, California. March, 1966. 63 pages.

Describes the problems in developing nonprofessional jobs in public schools for school-community workers. A job description is included in the appendix.

The Richmond Community Development Demonstration Project has two components--the "Indigenous Organization Program" and the "New Careers Program." In the latter, twelve "new careerists" fill positions in the police department, the Survey Research Center of the University of California (Berkley), and the Richmond Unified School District. Eight others serve as community workers in the Indigenous Organization Program.

Relations with the public schools are the most complex. The Superintendent of Schools was reluctant to become involved because of lack of space, lack of supervisory time, and the unwillingness of principals to accept additional administrative burdens. From the schools' viewpoint, creating new careers for low-income persons was a means, and not an especially preferred one, for improving services in schools. To the project, creating new careers was an end in itself and a means to improve better school services. It was finally agreed that five nonprofessionals would be assigned to two schools in predominantly Negro areas. The schools felt that there was not sufficient work for nonprofessionals and wanted them in separate schools, but the project pushed for a higher concentration. After several months, they were gradually accepted and principals found that there was sufficient work for them. The project alleviated the schools' concern with confidentiality by assuring the school that the project itself would orient the nonprofessionals with respect to this matter, and also assured the schools that new careerists would not initiate any contact or be officious. Nonprofessionals were jointly supervised by the schools and the project, an arrangement which led to a certain amount of conflict.

The new careerists in the schools were required to have a high school diploma, or experience in schools or related work, such as PTA s, scouting or church work. The job called for conducting home interviews, writing records, leading discussion groups, etc. The applicants were predominantly female, Negro, high school graduates.

Following the orientation period the five nonprofessionals began their jobs as school-community workers. Their prime responsibilities have been in contacts with individuals or groups to develop relationships with parents of difficult children and to interpret school programs. It was noted that attendance at PTA meetings had increased and that parents often were better able to express negative views at such meetings. Other tasks were: organizing noon-time recreation, escorting sick children, leading PTA discussions, encouraging parents to meet with teachers. The principals report that they were pleased with the program, and problems were generally those that could be corrected by more training.

Thomson, Scott D. "The Emerging Role of the Teacher Aide." The Clearing House. Volume 37, No. 6. February 1963. pages 326-330.

This describes the experience at the Homestead High School, Sunnyvale, California, where aides were used as part of different teams (i.e., a social studies team or library team). In general, the aides should possess some college training, intellectual maturity and good general information. Previous work experience in offices can be helpful. They must be mature and not recent high school graduates. In the team situation an aide can check attendance, maintain grade books, contact resources, set up parent appointments, take conference minutes, maintain student behavior cards and supervise the study of a class section. Aides start with routine clerical work and move to a wide range of duties including correcting objective tests.

Orientation is necessary and the task must be clearly defined. There is a need for careful supervision and explicit direction.

Two aides can be hired for approximately the cost of one experienced teacher. Money has to be secured from the community but sometimes can be gained by giving the teacher of the team additional students, that is, the value can be demonstrated by the fact that a teacher with an aide can handle a larger class.

University of California Extension, and New Careers Development Project. New Careers for Non-Professionals in Education. Final Report. Office of Economic Opportunity. May 1-August 31, 1965. 271 pages.

This report describes an effort to develop a model for teaching and administration in the elementary schools, particularly those having large numbers of disadvantaged children. Thirty-two non-professional teaching assistants were employed in nongraded class-rooms. In addition, 2 ex-offenders served on a research and evaluation team. Each certified teacher was assigned 4 nonprofessionals each of whom was to work with 6 children. Certified teachers were responsible for training and supervising the assistants.

Nonprofessionals were high school adolescents, both students and dropouts, college students without formal teacher training, and local parents. Preproject training consisted of five evening orientation meetings of small groups, weekend sensitivity training for the total staff and a five-day workshop. The professionals and nonprofessionals functioned in teams with each team consisting of the teacher, a college student, a high school student, a dropout, and a parent.

Testing showed significant gains in language skill among the children but little if any gain in arithmetic. There were no significant differences in children in terms of the four categories of assistant teachers who worked with them.

The roles were only loosely defined at the outset but became clearer towards the end of the summer. Possible roles for nonprofessionals suggested from the experience are: 1) Listeners to listen to children singly or in small groups and encourage them to talk; 2) Trouble Shooters to help the overaggressive or hyper-active children control themselves, to divert them, and to help them adjust to a group; 3) Relaters to give encouragement to the shy and troubled child; 4) Supporters to help a child try new things; 5) Inspirers to encourage and plan new activities; 6) Linkers to visit the homes; 7) Teachers to help older children plan learning experiences for younger ones, to offer "at the elbow" assistance and individual teaching. Not all nonprofessionals can function in this latter capacity.

University of the State of New York, State Education Department. Bureau of School and Cultural Research. Survey of Public School Teacher Aides, Fall, 1965. April 1966. 18 pages.

A survey on the use of teacher aides in schools in New York State to determine characteristics of aides and describe the activities they now perform. It is meant to be used as a basis for reviewing regulations regarding the employment of aides and advising schools on the most effective ways of using them. The findings emphasized the newness of the role of the aide, and that despite the wide range of functions, most aides are concentrated in noninstructional jobs, such as in playgrounds and clerical tasks, and that for the most part, these are part-time jobs of less than three hours a day.

The data was collected from administrators and individual aides in New York State, exclusive of New York City. Of the 629 school offices completing the questionnaire 68% report using aides. Of 428 districts now using aides, only ten have used them for more than ten years. A substantial number are employing them this year for the first time. The 428 districts report a total of 3,134 aides employed, of which 65% are working at the elementary school level, 28% at the secondary school level, and 7% at both levels. In the majority of cases aides are selected by the administrative staff. Frequently, professional staff makes recommendations. Only in a small number of districts were referrals made by other contacts.

The duties for aides reported by the administrators were as follows: for 93% of the districts, noninstructional supervision (cafeteria, playground, recess, bus); 52% report using aides in clerical functions; 28% in technical help (drill, help with a reading group, art, reading stories, telling stories); 20% with housekeeping duties; 6% use lay readers; 3% have aides in charge of instructional materials; and 2% as lab assistants.

As reported by 2,654 aides answering the questionnaire, 75% of the job assignments are in the areas of noninstructional and clerical work. 17% are general classroom aides who provide technical help plus general housekeeping functions. Almost all of these are in the elementary schools. 8% are library aides, lay readers or instructional material aides and the like.

As to the general qualifications required of aides, 28% of the reporting districts have no formal requirements but have taken into consideration education, skills, experience, etc. 72% have some formal requirements; 20% have age requirement, generally a minimum of 21;13% require women, and several specifically look for mothers; 45% have an educational requirement, generally of high school graduation. For certain jobs, such as the lay reader, a BA or some college is required. 38% of the districts require a special skill, usually the ability to handle children, and a smaller number mention requiring typing ability. Only 17% of districts require work experience.

Those employed show a median age of 42, and 98% are women. The lab aides, instructional material aides and lay readers are mostly college grads; the majority of others are high school graduates. 95% have children of their own; 98% have previous experience, almost all with children as babysitters, teaching sunday school, or camp counseling; 80% report having special skills in music, art or secretarial.

The aides' jobs are mostly part time: 55% work less than 3 hours a day. The median hourly pay ranges from $1.59 to $2.56 an hour. The lowest pay is for noninstructional supervision. Only 3% were appointed from a civil service list and these are classifications such as monitor, aide, clerk typist, etc. Almost all administrators react favorably to the use of aides.

D. HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALTH

Caudill, William. "Psukisoi in Japanese Psychiatric Hospitals." American Sociological Review. Volume 26, No. 2. April 1961. pages 204-214.

Psukisoi are women, akin to aides, who act as motherly servants to patients on a one-to-one basis. They are with one patient 24 hours a day, seven days per week. They sleep in the same room and serve as housekeeper and companion. They are not formally a part of the hospital staff but live in the hospital and are paid directly by patients.

The use of psukisoi reduces the necessity of security measures. Their role developed from the historic pattern of having a relative live in the hospital to care for a patient's housekeeping needs and provide companionship. Some have been trained in two-year programs offering elementary education.

Davis, Milbrew. "The Wanted Grandparent: Employment of the Aged in a Medical Setting." Paper presented at the Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare. Employing Staff from the Client Group: New Developments. New York City. October 1966. pages 30-39.

This paper describes the foster grandparent project at the Bexar County Hospital in San Antonio, Texas, a demonstration project to use older people to work with institutionalized children. They were deluged with applicants--mostly widows. Although half the population is Mexican, very few applied perhaps because there was a literacy criteria and many Mexicans were illiterate in English. To be eligible one needed to be poor, over 60 years old, warm, etc. They were given two weeks of classroom instruction and ward work. The staff was at first apprehensive but soon accepted them and recognized their value. Older people felt needed and the children were happier, especially badly burned children, others that needed tender loving care, and the disturbed who would not speak. The aides feed and change babies, assist older children with food, and play with them or read to them. Two have been employed as nurses' aides, others will be considered for employment as vacancies occur.

Day, Max, and Alice M. Robinson. "Training Aides through Group Techniques." Nursing Outlook. Volume II, Number 6. June 1954. pages 308-310.

This article describes the training of psychiatric aides at Boston State Hospital in four types of group sessions: 1) two weeks of orientation consisting of didactic classroom teaching combined with group discussions; 2) six months of advanced classroom training; 3) voluntary informal group meetings with nursing leadership; and 4) voluntary service conferences for all personnel led by a physician. The training was conducted for a staff of 410 aides with the orientation session geared for new employees.

Problems first centered on attendance. The aides were reluctant to take the advanced course and supervisors frequently asked that they be excused. Aides resented the idea that they needed a course and had little confidence in instructors who were often absent themselves. The situation changed when the instructors' attendance and preparation improved, and when actual case materials were used in the classroom. A well-publicized graduation ceremony provided recognition for taking the course.

Hallowitz, Emanuel. "The Use of Indigenous Nonprofessionals in a Mental Health Service." Paper presented at the Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare. Employing Staff from the Client Group: New Developments. New York City. October 1966. pages 1-19.

According to the author, not many years ago the idea of hiring a less-than-college-graduate with some psychology or sociology education to work with the mentally ill was unthinkable. "Today it appears that the agency that does not employ such people is not part of the 'in' crowd." (page 1) This has resulted in a tendency to exaggerate and over-sell with insufficient attention paid to realistic assessment of the advantages and disadvantages in employing the poor.

Experience at Lincoln Hospital (New York City) of more than one-and-a-half years suggests certain findings. The centers were called Neighborhood Service Centers rather than Mental Health Centers to indicate to residents that they could bring any type of problem for immediate help without having to define the problem in any particular way. The nonprofessional has the first contact with the client--not a receptionist--but an aide who is the main service agent. The nonprofessional assumes responsibility for helping the resident define his problem and determine the specific service needed. He is thus a two-way bridge because he also interprets to the resident the agency's services--what can be expected and what are the rights and obligations of the client. Before making a referral, the aide interprets to the agency the needs of the client.

The problems brought to the agency run the gamut of inadequate housing, retarded children, need and eligibility for welfare, aged relatives, unwed mothers, or helping a family to obtain and use needed medical or psychiatric services.

In some cases on-the-spot advice and information is enough but, more often, the client needs help with filling out application forms, handling red tape, and especially support. Sometimes the appropriate service is unavailable and the nonprofessional must engage in a holding operation to prevent the situation from deteriorating further.

The Aide also works with personnel in a variety of social agencies and institutions to communicate the needs, attitudes, and values of the residents. The aim is to affect change in policies, the manner of implementing services, and the quality of services. The professional staff similarly works with higher echelons of institutional and agency staff. The aides plan, organize and conduct meetings, form committees, and play an important role in these community activities. In their attempts to influence behavior they rely on information giving, counseling, and practical help. Professional consultation and supervision is always available.

The findings of this program thus far indicate that some myths about the poor need to be dispelled. First, the aides are no less free of prejudices than other people. Second, they have no greater or lesser capacity for empathy with those in trouble. Among the poor are individuals who, as in other groups, are warm, sensitive, eager and able to learn and to help other people. Many with proper training and supervision can make a significant contribution to their communities. They are not superior to professionals, but they can provide significant, valuable service of a different order, not necessarily comparable with that provided by professionals.

One of the problems with aides is that many have strong negative and positive feelings about agency structure. They fear and distrust professionals on the one hand and yet have a reverence for their omnipotence on the other. This results in a wish to learn together with an anti-intellectualism which deprecates reading, education or knowledge. They either feel that the professionals know nothing and that they (the aides) know it all, or vice versa. There is also rivalry and competition among the aides. They react to finding themselves "low-men on the totem pole" and begin to struggle for greater role definition and higher status.

The professionals are also subject to conflicting attitudes. They are caught between the desire to see nonprofessionals develop and the reluctance to give up responsibilities. The difficulties nonprofessionals have in keeping records make many professionals anxious about possible damage. Professionals tend to plan and reflect and to respect traditional channels. These tendencies are threatened by the nonprofessionals' more active and more immediate responses, and their spontaneous and informal ways. Some of the difficulties crept into the supervisory conferences where often the nonprofessional acted like a school boy toward his teacher. Aides need opportunity to develop work habits, and to understand and then question the organizational structures, routines and procedures.

There are many gains, however. Small group participation has minimized the problems. Large numbers of people have been served, and nonprofessionals have intervened in crises and developed meaningful relationships with pathological types. Nonprofessionals can carry many tasks normally done by the professionals. The use of the nonprofessional extends the outreach of professional services. This aides have influenced the style and delivery of professional services and become effective representatives.

Howard University. Center for Youth and Community Studies. *The Implications of the Nonprofessional in Community Mental Health.* Washington, D.C. 1966. 14 pages.

This paper discusses mental health as a positive healthy element (not prevention and treatment of mental diseases). In this context the employment of the nonprofessional is itself a significant human service. In order to do this, institutional procedures, education and work relationships will need to be reorganized. The professional hierarchies and their functional division into specialties need reexamination before nonprofessional roles and sequences can be properly devised.

Mental health is defined as a positive condition and mental health services are those which promote and maintain the physical, emotional and intellectual needs of the individual and the community. Mental health problems in modern society are complicated by rapid technological change, urbanization, and the competitive hierarchical social system which results in dehumanization and bureaucracy. These result in certain needs: work with families, with alienation, social planning, the creation of sound climates within institutions, the training of lay people and professionals in experimental health principles and the reducing of dislocation and dysfunction.

The question is what can the indigenous nonprofessional contribute? As a human service aide in a variety of roles performing simple tasks there is much that he can contribute but this requires a reorganization of the hierarchy with professional concentrating on planning, supervision and highly skilled tasks. Direct services must be broken down into simpler tasks with graduated steps of increased difficulty and responsibility. Continuing education and training must be devised including possibilities of work training "packages." There is a need to reorganize the structure of institutions, to change the concept of employment and to reorganize the work in education programs.

The big question is how to give status to jobs which are often low-paying jobs. Advancement needs to be both horizontal and vertical. One can advance vertically not only from aide to technician to professional, but also, within the aide level, one could create supervisory and administrative roles.

Training must be designed with nonprofessional goals and values in mind. At Howard University formal training is short and the amount of time on the job is gradually increased. Training is offered in a rehabilitative manner: remedial and therapeutic. This type of training is needed because of the failure of traditional education to provide a satisfactory mental health climate for disadvantaged youth.

If institutions and agencies change and new education models arrive to meet new needs, the nonprofessional role may be the entry route for the majority of human service personnel. Work experience may become part of a junior high school and senior high school program for all, not only the poor.

Nonprofessional development in human service is as important as the other human services the institution provides. It will bring the services closer to those served and reduce the impersonality of the institution and give it a new sense of neighborhood.

Howard University. Center for Youth and Community Studies. Training for Community Mental Health Aides. Washington, D.C. May 1966. 25 pages.

A program to train disadvantaged youth to serve as leaders of small youth groups. A three-month training program including core, specialty and on-the-job training. Chapter II outlines the curriculum including the agencies used for field visits. Chapter III outlines the on-the-job training. Appendix A lists and annotates selected mental health films.

Kirk, Larry M. "Home Health Aide Training." Extension Service Review. Volume 37, Number 7. July 1966. pages 4-5.

The Nevada Cooperative Extension Service has conducted training for Indian women to serve as home health aides to implement the wishes of the family and help maintain family routine in times of crises. They also help a family adjust to abnormal situations, provide sympathetic understanding toward children, and assist with food, laundry and cleaning. Twelve 5-hour sessions of training were given. Home economists gave instruction in food preparation, nutrition, and housekeeping. Public Health Service workers discussed basic human needs and behavior. Other instructors were nurses, doctors, welfare and employment service personnel, etc. Most trainees have either found employment or are applying what they have learned at home.

Lee, Anne Natalie. "The Training of Nonprofessional Personnel." Nursing Outlook. Volume 6, Number 4. April 1958. pages 222-225.

A demonstration training project for nonprofessionals was conducted at Craig Colony, one of the hospitals in the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene. The hospital cares primarily for epileptic, retarded, or cerebral palsy patients. There is a staff of 347 aides and 69 registered nurses for 2300 patients. The project gave every nurse some responsibility for training auxiliary personnel.

The regular program consisted of a three-week series of classroom orientation, demonstration, and observation, followed by 24 weeks of job rotation, and then a 75-hour course in techniques. This program proved to be insufficient. The nurses expected new aides to function competently after the first three weeks. Older nonprofessional employees who had not received the training were hostile to the trainees. The turnover of trainees and attendants was great. It was evident that the training program alone was not enough. It was necessary to train the older employees and the professionals as well.

In the demonstration program, nurses were sent to two-day workshops to discuss methods of evaluating workers and on-the-job training. Nurses were interested in teaching but felt insecure about their ability or felt unable to give the time. During the workshops, decisions were made to draw up a skill inventory to decide on priorities of teaching, to break down procedures into component steps, etc. Almost all nurses and aides felt the training to be valuable. Nurses and aides had a better understanding of the job, and the nurses made teaching and follow-up on instruction a part of their normal routine.

Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Services. The Neighborhood Service Center: A Proposal to Implement a Community Mental Health Network. Albert Einstein College of Medicine. Lincoln Hospital. New York City. n.d. mimeo. 18 pages.

This is a progress report of the training of 18 aides for placement in the Neighborhood Service Center Program and the Multi-Purpose Clinical Facilities. The report discusses recruitment and selection, noting the usefulness of group screening processes, and describes the characteristics of aides hired, most of whom were high school graduates. It traces the development of the training from heavy reliance on informal aspects of training to a more systemetized in-service program. Appendices C,D, and E provide case histories and sample news letters.

The original core training plan called for a three-week intensive program to provide orientation, and specific knowledge about personality theory, group behavior, etc. It also intended to teach some basic interviewing and counseling skills. It was soon apparent that more time would be needed, and the goals of training were limited to the specifics of the roles of interviewer and expediter. Because of the newness and uncertainty of their roles, there was considerable anxiety among the trainees. To overcome this, they were involved as much as possible in group activities and in group planning to build solidarity.

For specific information, field visits, discussions, and reading materials were used to acquaint the trainees with major public and private agencies. The informal field visits were the most successful.

Experience with the first group indicated that they did not receive sufficient preparation in the details of filling out forms, records, proper use of the telephone, etc. And from their later reactions to seminars, the capacity to accept didactic presentations was probably underestimated.

On-the-job training was originally based on one-to-one supervision, and informal group discussions with emphasis on learning which agencies and resources might be tapped, and the details and forms necessary to assist clients in utilizing these resources. Aides were also encouraged to develop their own resources, e.g., canvassing local businesses for discounts, job openings, etc. Weekly training meetings continued to use the group as a training agent.

As the program developed, the in-service training was expanded and additional elements were included and the whole process became systemetized. A central library was organized and short seminars were held. It was planned that the first in-service training program would run approximately 12 weeks, and would be devoted to intensive teaching and interviewing techniques and report writing. Once a month there would be more didactic presentations of theory.

Mobilization For Youth, and Gouverneur Ambulatory Unit of Beth Israel Hospital. A Demonstration Program To Find Ways of Reorienting Health Services in a Low-Income Area. Proposal. New York City. February 15, 1965. mimeo. 14 pages.

This is a pilot project (started Fall, 1966) to train 40 persons in ten weeks of pre-vocational training including: 1) basic education--English; 2) part-time hospital work to put the vocabulary information into practice; 3) counseling to select the occupation to be pursued in the second stage of training; 4) supportive services.

There will also be 30 weeks of on-the-job training with intensive supervision, plus four hours per week of basic education during the second part of the program. The prospective jobs include: health visitors, clinic patient relations aides, social service aides and homemakers. The jobs are described briefly in this proposal.

National Council for Homemaker Services. Standards for Homemaker-Home Health Aide Services. New York City. July 1965. 48 pages.

General guidelines for homemakers. Describes purposes, functions, and procedures for supplying homemakers. Gives rules for organizing such a service, how to recruit, select and train, required qualifications, etc. Job design is listed on pages 23-24.

Office of Economic Opportunity. Community Action Program. Community Health Programs. Washington, D.C., July 1966. 19 pages.

General guidelines for establishing a comprehensive health center or providing special health services. This pamphlet includes an enumeration of potential tasks for the nonprofessional and a few examples of health programs using nonprofessionals in new roles.

Riessman, Frank. "New Approaches to Mental Health Treatment for Low-Income People." Reprint. Social Work Practice. Columbia University Press. New York. 1965. pages 174-187.

This article suggests modification in traditional treatment approaches to accomodate the low-income client, making recommendations with respect to intake procedures and diagnostic techniques, and especially the use of the nonprofessional wherever possible in this process. It suggests that through the use of nonprofessionals, therapeutic approaches may be modified by stimulating involvement in social movements, block committees, etc.--therapy through social action or what might be termed socio-therapy.

Riessman, Frank, and Emanuel Hallowitz. The Neighborhood Service Center - An Innovation in Preventive Psychiatry. Paper prepared for the American Psychiatric Association Meetings. Atlantic City, New Jersey. May 1966. 12 pages.

A report on the three Neighborhood Service Centers developed under the auspices of Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Services (New York City). The Neighborhood Service Center program aims to provide psycho-social first-aid and counseling of a simple type. Counseling in this case consists largely of a listening ear and some emotional support. Thus, the nonprofessional's basic pattern of relationship is not trained out. The skills involved are based on enlarging the friendliness and warmth of the neighborhood worker's style. The aide in this case presents a model to the client to become involved in a mutually reciprocal relation with other people also in need of help. The aide personifies the helper-therapy role and the intent is to develop a therapeutic community. Experience to date suggests that nonprofessionals can provide and expedite services for large numbers of disadvantaged families. They have established good relations with various agencies in the community and have obtained considerable cooperation from them, but have not yet had any impact on overall agency practices and policies. The Neighborhood Service Center may become a central feature for Community Mental Health Centers throughout the country to reach neighborhood populations and bring together hospital-based and agency-based clinical and social services.

Robinson, Rachel and Melvin Roman. "New Directions for the Psychiatric Aide." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth & Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 49-62.

The authors describe their experience in training aides for a psychiatric day hospital. Recent studies indicate that traditional programs are inadequate. There is low job satisfaction and high turnover which document their ineffectiveness. Formal programs fail to deal with the aides' low status and self-esteem and the anxieties created by insufficient understanding of patient behavior. The aides need constant support and guidance. There is a growing conviction that informal experiential training, concrete demonstrations, and active co-participation with professionals is superior to formal classroom presentation of watered-down psychiatry.

Psychiatric aides comprise the largest category of mental health personnel in public institutions. According to the 1961 Joint Commission on Mental Illness, the total is in excess of 90,000. The data is incomplete, but generally, for an aide in a psychiatric institution, a high school diploma is required although standards may be reduced in the face of low availability. Large numbers of aides are minority group members, often insecure and feeling inadequate, who are seeking only a job. Male aides in particular approach the job with considerable ambivalence. Prospects for upgrading regardless of capacity are few.

A new program at a research center is described. Here patients are grouped for activities (8 to 10 in a group) with one doctor, nurse and aide as their leaders. The doctor is the leader and aide and nurse are co-leaders. Aides participate in meetings to plan work, recreation, cultural activities, and group therapy sessions. Groups often develop their own projects. The aides are expected to share in the planning, implementing and therapy, and to serve as a bridge to reality. They contribute also to the research. In general, they interact with individuals and with groups, assume responsibility for group activity (suggesting, encouraging, demonstrating, and setting limits),reduce tension through companionship and escort service, are alert to symptomatic changes, assist patients with personal hygiene, housekeeping, etc. and participate in staff conferences.

Training aims to make the aide a better therapeutic agent and to permit him to achieve greater job satisfaction. There are two elements in the training. First, the daily functioning as part of a nurse-aide team with the nurse standing as a model and informal teacher. Second, staff seminars and small groups led by a nursing supervisor. The authors note that it is hard to get the aides to participate in staff meetings.

There is no systematic evaluation but it has been observed that aides can be successfully integrated into the treatment team and assume increasing responsibility and initiative. They need, however, careful and consistent supervision and ample time for conferences.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Public Health Service. The Psychiatric Aide in State Mental Hospitals. GPO. Washington, D.C. March 1965. 113 pages.

This is a 1963 study of the numbers, distribution, demographic and economic characteristics, job duties and attitudes of psychiatric aides and their supervisors; and the personnel and training practices of hospitals in which they are employed. Aides are defined as subprofessional mental health workers engaged in direct patient contact, primarily on wards and not using specialized vocational skills (such as barbers, gardeners, etc.). The study includes nearly all 288 state and county hospitals in the United States. The data was collected from records, visits, and sample interviews with aides and their immediate supervisors. The findings with respect to training were that 9 out of 10 institutions offered formal training; approximately 2/3 of all aides had participated in one or more formal training programs; about 3/4 said they needed additional training to be better aides, especially in nursing procedures, in the causes and types of mental illnesses, and in the psychological needs of patients. Their supervisors also thought that aides needed more training for the development of a better self-image as responsible workers with a more professional attitude.

It is estimated that in 1963, state and county hospitals for the mentally ill employed approximately 96,000 aides with a quarter of them in New York and California, and over half in eight states. Sixty percent are women; almost half have completed high school, and ten percent have had from 1 to 3 years of college. The median education is 11th grade. When hired, they usually had little relevant training or experience. Over half had been service workers or machine operators. Nineteen percent are Negro as compared with 10 percent of the labor force. In three states over half the aides were Negro, and in one state over 87 percent were Negro. Two thirds were married, often to another employee of the hospital. Only six percent live in at the hospitals. The median salary is $3,550 on a national basis; by state the median range is from $1,200 to $5,000. Two thirds were hired on the basis of state or county civil service regulations. The turnover rate as of 1962 was 29 percent.

The aide is supervised generally by an RN or less frequently by a practical nurse or another aide. Aides perform a wide variety of tasks from nursing to housekeeping. The tasks in order of the frequency with which they were mentioned by the aides are: 1) nursing--giving medicine, taking temperature, blood pressure; 2) monitoring--breaking up fights, escorting patients; 3) counseling--helping patient discuss problems, encouraging participation in activities; 4) housekeeping; 5) information--writing notes on patients' charts, reporting to the nurse or M.D. on patients' condition; 6) performance improvement--a study of patients' case histories, attending staff meetings.

Although nursing care absorbs 75 to 100 percent of the aides' time they preferred counseling duties. This is especially true of the better educated. Changes in job design suggested by the aides focused on upgrading with stress on patient care and increased responsibility. They would like fewer cases and fewer menial tasks. Other suggestions were for improvements in pay and working conditions, better job training, and better staff relations. Most, however, have a positive attitude toward the job despite the economic disadvantages. They conclude that it's worthwhile and interesting work.

The training instructors are generally drawn from the nursing staff. Training content emphasizes the job duties, hospital procedures and policies. Methods include classroom lectures, demonstrations, and assigned readings.

Of the hospitals that supplied copies of training materials, there was considerable variation in outline and on the time allotted. The major units in most outlines related to patient care, divided between physical and psychological aspects. Physical care usually is given the greater time. In some instances, psychological aspects are covered in a single lecture or film presentation. Teaching methods also vary, some are entirely didactic, others include trainee participation in demonstrations and discussion. Some hospitals have developed special reading materials. On-the-job training is only described as ward assignment or supervised practice, and is not spelled out. There is no common sequence of instruction. Some hospitals indicate they are searching for better training methods. The report mentions a two-year certification program affiliated with a junior college, but does not give the precise situation.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and U.S. Department of Labor. Training Health Service Workers: The Critical Challenge. Proceedings of Conference on Job Development and Training for Workers in Health Services. GPO. Washington, D.C. February 14-17, 1966. 102 pages.

The conference focused on workers requiring less than a bachelors degree. Suggestions for increasing the quantity and quality of health service workers included: 1) strengthening the health team concept; 2) delineating functions; 3) improving coordination and utilization of federal resources for training health workers; 4) increasing wages and improving working conditions; 5) strengthening curriculum methods and materials for instruction; 6) improving recruiting techniques; and 7) creating job ladders.

It was projected that health manpower needs would reach, by 1975, one million above the present totals, or an average of ten thousand new people per month.

Eli Ginsberg cautions against putting all the emphasis on supply and training. Wages and working conditions, meaningful jobs and meaningful careers are absolute essentials. Initial training can be important in recruitment, but people are concerned about what happens to them after they get their first job. Unless a training program is geared to systems of promotion and attached to significant increases in wages and benefits, it is not a true training program.

Robert Kinsinger forecasts that education for the health subprofessional will probably move more into an educational institution, with the high schools training for the assistant level and the junior colleges for the technical level. The hospital will then become an extention of the campus--the clinical laboratory.

Curriculum study groups have identified general areas of knowledge, skill and understanding common to all health technologies. From this we can build a common base and introduce students to a broad spectrum of career opportunities and assist them in selecting a specific career.

The core of such a curriculum would include understanding of health service resources, experiences in team relationships, health ethics, general pathology, physiology, how diseases are treated, and skills in maintaining environment conducive to patient welfare.

Recruitment is simplified by attracting students to the general field without necessitating premature choice of specialty. There are also trends in evidence affected by the introduction of new technologies such as programmed instruction.

U.S. Veterans Administration. A Study of the Use of the Social Work Assistant in the Veterans Administration. GPO. Washington, D.C. July 1965. 82 pages and appendices.

A report of a two-year pilot study on the use of college graduates as assistants to social workers in southern veterans administration stations, conducted to test whether such staffing achieved a better use of professional time. The plan focused on using the assistants for limited time assignments rather than on allowing assistants to handle total cases. Full responsibility for each case was with the professional social worker. Emphasis was on integrating the assistants into the social work treatment plan.

The essential value of the study has been to demonstrate that manpower problems do exist in the VA social work service, that levels within the service can be identified, and that an administrative framework can be designed to delegate work among different levels of staff with desirable gains in service and work organizations. Furthermore, professionals can integrate such work into their treatment plans. This is especially appropriate for sustaining the older and chronically ill patient.

There is a need for further study to determine assignment patterns, the ratio of assistants to professionals, to develop the roles in outpatient clinics, to assess the educational and other qualifications required and their impact on content and extent of agency training. The full potential of the assistant in a community placement program has only been hinted at and warrants further research. There is also more work needed in patient classification in accordance with skills required for specific tasks.

Six of the seven stations elected to continue the use of their assistants. They are no longer seen as experiments but as regular members of the social work team. This indicates the value of an experiment of sufficient size and duration taking place within an established institution as an agency of change. It also indicates that with experience and involvement professional resistance is not an overt factor.

Training findings are that first orientation of assistants should be brief and simple with the objective of rapid movement into training for the first tasks. A danger is an extensive orientation period which attempts to provide too much knowledge which cannot be immediately reinforced. Orientation should provide the security of a supervisory relationship, acceptance by other staff, readiness of the work setting to accept the new trainee, and a knowledge of basic work procedures. New knowledge is best integrated as it accumulates from daily work experience. When possible, assistants already on the staff can be used in the orientation process.

There is some question about how much overall standardization or centralization of training is possible at this time. But efforts to standardize teaching tools should be considered. For example, in teaching information gathering, recording, correspondence, etc. a list of appropriate readings and the like could be devised.

The time necessary for training varied. It often took longer when an assistant with a need to learn was coupled with a supervisor with a need to teach. Training was more formalized when the trainers had supervisory status. When supervision is not secure the assistants can involve him in more training time than necessary for performance of the tasks.

After basic training was completed, group methods were used to introduce interviewing and other procedural techniques. On balance, learning by doing at the work station was found best. But formal teaching materials, group discussions for refining and ventilating ideas, and participation in staff meetings which tend to promote a group cohesiveness, are all useful.

E. SOCIAL WELFARE

Back, Edith B. Public Welfare, Volunteers, and the War on Poverty. (Revised). North Carolina Fund. Durham, North Carolina. February 1966. 107 pages.

This is a report of four volunteers that were assigned to work as a team with one professional, providing service to 35 multi-problem-family recipients of public welfare in Durham, North Carolina. All the volunteers were college graduates and two had graduate degrees.

Epstein, Laura. Differential Use of Staff - A Method to Expand Social Services. Based on a paper presented at Region II Meeting. National Travelers Aid Association. Williamsburg, Virginia. March 9, 1961. mimeo. 16 pages.

This paper describes the differences between case aides and case workers based on the character of service to be performed rather than on the degree of psycho-pathology of the client. Case aides handle specific problems and dispense concrete services. These aides or nonprofessionals are college graduates with previous experience in dealing with human problems. They are taught how to identify the concrete and specific problems in a case load, and determine what resources exist and how to utilize them. They become adept at evaluating the concrete problems and solving them with concrete services. In this formulation, nonprofessionals are used as part of a team.

Farrar, Marcella, and Mary L. Hemmy. "The Use of Nonprofessional Staff in Work with the Aged." Social Work. Volume 8, No. 3. July 1963. pages 44-50.

Describes the demonstration project at the Benjamin Rose Institute in Cleveland utilizing "social service assistants." These are recent college graduates with a major in one of the social sciences. They are used as assistants to professionals. Their tasks include direct and indirect services. They visit homes, provide escort services, help with practical matters, and obtain information from other sources. The authors conclude that the use of the assistants results in better service.

Goldberg, Gertrude. Summary of Report on Visiting Homemakers: Emphasizing the Use of Indigenous Persons in a Social Work Program. Mobilization For Youth. New York City. July 1963. mimeo. 5 pages.

This report describes the homemaker role of 15 lower East Side residents employed by Mobilization For Youth. It focuses on the special capacity of the indigenous nonprofessional to develop rapport, empathy and tolerance. It concludes that indigenous people add know-how and relationship skills to a social agency, provided that the agency respects and appreciates their contribution and does not try to mold them into a professional image.

Harvey, L.V. "The Use of Non-Professional Auxiliary Counselors in Staffing a Counseling Service." Journal of Counseling Psychology. Volume II, Number 4. Winter 1964. pages 348-351.

Describes marriage counseling in Australia where nonprofessionals are selected on the basis of maturity, ability to relate to others, and capacity to succeed in a college-level training program. The training program consists of a few evenings per week for one to two years.

Mayer, Morris Fritz. "Differential Education and Inservice Training for Child Care Workers." Child Welfare. Volume XLIV, Number 5, May 1965. pages 252-261.

Although the orientation of this paper is on the nonprofessional in a treatment center for children, the types of workers discussed, a typology of their goals, and their differential training needs have considerable applicability to CAP staffs. The relevant types of workers are: 1) the cottage parents--warm, mature adults who wish certain kinds of work as an extension of their natural person-to-person abilities, who are not necessarily seeking a career as such, and who need not accept all professional methods, attitudes and approaches; they are invaluable for their skill at negotiating the environment, for practical help, for easy contact with others; training for them becomes a matter of organizing their natural ability; 2) for the young nonprofessional in search of a calling who is uncertain of his capacity or direction, training has a different focus permitting him to test out a vocation, acquire some specific skills and the motivation to receive additional training; 3) for those who are quasi-professionals, in-service training can function as a second track toward professional accreditation. (All three types have been found to be employed within CAP's and the recommendations the author makes with the view to differentiating training are valuable.)

The author identifies five categories of child care workers: 1) the cottage parent who is qualified primarily by his parental instincts and qualities; his training needs to be focused on the utilization of his personal qualities; 2) those in search of a calling, that is, many young people who haven't the education for a regular profession have come to this work in an attempt to find a worthwhile occupation; 3) the professional "child care worker," not professional in the academic sense, but able to function on a quasi-professional level, which means he is able to modify the role he plays according to the need of the child; training needs for this person are directed toward understanding the child and his behavior and conceptualizing the work. A successful in-service training program can move some of those in the second category into this third quasi-professional group. The other two categories are 4) those people between jobs; and 5) the professional social worker.

To train the first three categories takes a combination of methods including: 1) individual supervision, most important in preparing for and reviewing the actual work; 2) intra-agency courses to permit the worker to see his functions in relation to a total structure and as part of an ongoing process; and 3) interagency courses to permit the development of underlying concepts away from the practical boundary of a single agency. For cottage parents, individual supervision is the method by which they seem to learn most effectively. Their value is in their direct and natural approach to clients and their natural strength. It is not necessary to teach them complex methods of understanding psychological factors. Training becomes a matter of providing a disciplined way in which these people can give of themselves. You cannot and should not want to change their basic attitudes. For those who are searching for a career, training needs to be more subjective. It is necessary to make them analyze themselves to find their own strengths and weaknesses. For the "quasi-professional," understanding the basic philosophy and methods of implementation should be part of training. It is necessary to relate the task to the larger goals as preparation for more formal training.

Intra-agency training, e.g., group sessions, case conferences, etc., are of special value to the second and third groups especially for the young career-seeker. Group training is good for workers in relating specific work to agency goals, and in permitting greater objectivity about the work. In the intra-agency session personal experiences can be used as a subject for considering general initiative. Interagency training is more impersonal and of least benefit to the irst type, the cottage parent. As a matter of fact he may even be confused by it. It is a great benefit to the career-seeker and especially beneficial to the quasi-professional.

With respect to content and methods the author suggests that courses should not be directly aimed at the lowest level, but at those people with the highest learning potential. Training course content should be geared toward problem-solving, and this should also be the focus of supervision. In the training course, problems gain an academic objectivity. Interagency courses should therefore be oriented towards the career-seeker and the quasi-professional rather than the house parent.

The author notes in conclusion that child care is not an attractive field to the graduate social worker, that they usually use this field as a stepping-stone and, therefore, in-service training in this field is especially important. There is a need for a coordinated plan for the development of workers in this field leading towards certification. While this could develop professional child care workers, there will always be room for the nonprofessional workers.

Meyer, Carol H. Staff Development in Public Welfare Agencies.
Columbia University Press. New York and London. 1966.
230 pages.

Recommends a program of in-service training to develop nonprofessional manpower as a substitute for the inadequate number of professionals in public welfare. Not a substitute for professional education. A different form for different functions, but not pre-professional--in other words, training for a permanent work level, not merely as a professional recruitment device. (In this case, all but MSW's are nonprofessionals).

The author views in-service training in an agency with full participation of the staff as the best method of staff development. This is not a general educational process, but strictly a job-oriented training program limited to the particular needs of the agency. The focus is on the college graduate in public welfare but the discussion has some relevance for nonprofessionals in general.

Usually in-service training is simply superimposed upon existing programs--an appendage to normal operation. To be developed properly it needs to be an integral part of the total life of the agency.

Public welfare operates under a variety of systems, internal and external, and has at times conflicting goals--to help, and to check eligibility. Internally the controls are usually the paper controls typical of a bureaucracy. Such a system which does not allow for the uncertainties that accompany learning is antithetical to staff development. Also the "closed system" of civil service is a hazard. But the most important aspect of public welfare programs with reference to staff development is a lack of clarity of tasks to be done by the professional, nonprofessional, administrative, and clerical staff. Numerous attempts have been made to classify worker roles, sometimes by type of cases, sometimes by agency functions. The latter, a "unit of service approach," is undoubtedly the easiest type to differentiate, but it usually results in the nonprofessional being assigned to the area of greatest quantity of need. Another scheme differentiates workers according to their skills rather than the clients' needs. In public welfare this places the psycho-social diagnosis and treatment planning in the hands of the professionals. Professional tasks would include intake interviews, leading staff sessions and the complex aspects of treatment. The nonprofessional would make school and other collateral visits, collect data, arrange for and exhort clients to make appointments, etc. Thus the agency-trained nonprofessional can be instructed and supervised to secure data, record it, be trained to interview, observe and identify problems apparent to him, and assemble facts.

The professional's performance would be improved if he is free from the tasks that have been tested and found routine. He will be free to assume more challenging work, to keep up with advances, accept new ideas and thereby modify practice. Professional education stresses concepts of theory generic to the entire field, expecting the professional to be able to bring his knowledge to bear on specific situations. Agency training is strictly for his own practice.

Staff development training does not have as its aim the inculcation of expert professional knowledge. The method relies on the problems presented in daily practice, utilizing content derived from readily available experiences. Learning takes place as the case is taught, as principles that evolve from it can be generalized for future practice. Formal classroom teaching of concepts must always be taught within a framework of practice that is ongoing and familiar to the worker. Unlike professional education, agency training is completely job oriented. The evaluation that counts is performance on the job not brilliance in the classroom.

It's crucial to remember that the new recruit is on the brink of a job experience, not an educational one. If the aim is to initiate the trainee into the ongoing work of the agency, then there is no value in providing orientation to another environment--a separate training institute. It is better to have the training take place in the work situation to be sure it is real and that all staff are involved. When a separate institute and faculty are used, the ultimate supervisors of the trainee frequently retrain the students in their own way. When the training staff is isolated from the work environment, they cannot affect the supervisor's attitude or be helpful to the new worker who has graduated to his job. The institute may have greater recognition and visibility but may not serve a particular agency's needs. A training unit with a special staff of supervisors can be structured within the confines of the agency.

The new recruit is primarily interested in himself. He wants to know his role and probably will be unable to absorb the history, policies and procedures of the agency which do not affect his immediate situation. He may not be concerned with the major issues in social welfare until he has seen his first case. First sessions need a casual atmosphere and the opportunity to ask personal questions.

The goal for orientation should be to acquaint the worker with the most superficial aspects of his job. The sooner he is assigned a desk, a supervisor, a case load, and carefully defined tasks, the sooner he will learn by doing. It is then that his initial anxiety will be replaced by the activity of learning and achieving.

Once oriented and assigned to a training unit, he will participate in more structured group teaching sessions. This is called "central training" as distinguished from learning by working in a training unit. Sufficient time must be allowed, free from work, for central training. The content of group sessions must be closely related to the worker's practice. The program has to be viewed as a self-contained program not a preparation for graduate education. With respect to content, what is preferred is an open course plan--dealing with whatever concerns the worker. Supervisors of training units modify the work to the content of the central training and give opportunities to put new knowledge into practice. Perhaps supervisors can themselves participate in central training sessions, planning and evaluating or even occasionally teaching them. A precise scheduling must allow for variation. What is important is that both on-the-job training and the seminars continue on a regular, coordinated basis.

For teaching of routine tasks group learning by rote is a mistake. For example, the traditional practice of having a group go through information forms item by item with an instructor should be avoided. A better way is to discuss the significance of the items on the forms and engage the group in general discussion not just list them and emphasize the need for accuracy. In the former method the workers see the significance of the routine task and are less likely to resist it, and they also see the need for accuracy. It is all right for new workers to protest the entire method of establishing eligibility. It is not necessary for them to accept it unquestionably. This involves them in a major issue and they will see the reasons for the practice even if they disapprove.

To recapitulate and state all of this in terms of principles:

1. Integrated learning takes place primarily through supervision of practice in which meaning is derived from actual situations. Seminars can never be a substitute for on-the-job training.

2. Central training supplements on-the-job training by providing an area for raising questions, learning content and finding security and identification through association in an agency sponsored group.

3. Both elements of training must be involved in a mutual feedback of content. Training can imaginatively expand routine materials. The simplest procedure must be taught conceptually with emphasis on the reasons behind it so the workers will be stimulated to think and question.

4. Content of seminars should include general content which relates to every case. (Supervisory time is best spent on application of this general content to the individual case.) Content should also include materials about the agency's function, structure and purposes, about trends in the community, attitudes toward public welfare, and other resources in the community. A further subject is the nature of clientele, the needs of the poor, the behavior of people defending themselves from problems, anxiety, psychological, cultural, and intellectual differences, different strengths and weaknesses, etc. A final segment of content is the worker, his methods, values and attitudes.

In public welfare agencies supervisors are usually promoted to their rank after two or more years of successful practice as workers. More and more agencies are requiring an MSW for supervisors but it will be years before all supervisors are in possession of graduate degrees. Since the staff are mostly nonprofessionals in strict terms, in-service training of new workers may pose a threat to them. Experienced nonprofessionals can also benefit from in-service training. The most effective technique would be to involve them in training lower levels of staff. The higher the staff level, the greater the resistance to the role of learner. It is best to involve them as participants of curriculum planning as well as learners.

It is important that the consultant or planner of staff development be administratively related to the top administrator. High-level involvement is a necessary support in view of likely resistance. A group training plan aims at involving the whole staff. Experience shows that staff involvement is beneficial; even though staff members are not expert teachers, they are "of" the agency and they learn in the process. It is questionable whether there is much value in training subordinates until supervisors are brought along in the program. Although supervisors may need training in job content, a first priority is to train them in techniques of supervision. This is usually their greatest deficiency.

At the opposite end of the spectrum clerical staff needs to be involved in the training as well as all other ancillary personnel.

Although training suggests practice to gain skills as opposed to education which is the development of thinking, training must not degenerate into indoctrination. It can't afford an aimless pursuit of knowledge but must strike a balance.

Workers need to be free to think. They cannot be expected to automatically apply rules but must be able to choose among alternatives. The objective is to train the worker to think rather than to know, to examine sources of evidence, not to memorize problems and solutions. To observe, listen, draw inferences and make judgments and to accept individual differences and control his own biases.

With respect to interviewing, the knowledge of technique rests with a view of how people behave and how the worker sees them. Teaching interviewing is not a purely substantive matter.

Training cannot be devoted exclusively to skills. For example, you can teach a receptionist the answers to certain questions but this would not make her pleasant to people or able to deal with the unprepared question. Primary learning has to do with the policies and procedures of the job. Attendant learnings are the values and the attitudes. Primary learning can be taught directly while the attendant learnings are "not taught but caught"--they derive from meaningful experience.

Primary or substantive knowledge is best taught in groups through lecture and discussion methods. It is generally objective and therefore can be taught in a group. Factors favor a larger group for beginners and a smaller group for advanced staff. For the instruction of policies and procedures a written manual is helpful. Methods are best taught in conjunction with practical experiences either in group sessions or in individual supervisory conferences. Values are taught in conjunction with every other kind of learning. The emphasis is on the application of theory and not on the theory. The theory is in the mind of the trainer.

There are two primary forms of training, classwork and field work or unit practice training. There is a distinction in method and also one of emphasis; the former emphasizes intellectual grasp of content and the other is concerned with application. This does not mean that ideas are not taught in practice or that case materials are not discussed in a seminar. The practice is focused on the worker as the learner. The group session is focused around the content. These differences are really of emphasis and of timing. Practice can be paced to the individual worker.

For the content of central training, soliciting cases from staff is an easy way to involve them in the training. Those cases from the agency itself are better than formal cases designed as teaching materials.

The author views audio-visual materials as having a limited place for in-service training. She prefers the participation of the group. Outside materials should be used only if enough time is allowed for discussion. The same is true of reading materials. You cannot rely on the worker's motivation to absorb reading. The need is to engage the worker in active participation in discussion and debate. One must deemphasize lecture exposition and narration. Raising questions is preferable. Don't give yes and no answers but rather introduce facts which tend to validate certain arguments. There is little room for rote teaching.

Monahan, Fergus. A Study of Nonprofessional Personnel in Social Work: The Army Social Work Specialist. The Catholic University Press. Washington, D.C. 1960. 201 pages.

This is a study of nonprofessional personnel in army social work programs. It describes the functions of these nonprofessionals; explores role congruity and incongruity between social work functions and army rank; and compares the relevance of work assignments with the ability to function. The usefulness of this dissertation is not so much in the social theory it attempts to assess but in the description of functions performed by nonprofessional personnel. The army has had this level of occupation in continual use for seventeen years. The report also contains a review of the pre-1960 literature on the nonprofessional indicating its paucity. The job description is of special interest because of the series of levels of nonprofessional work provided for in the army.

The author defines the nonprofessional as an emotionally-stable individual employed as an assistant to the professional social worker assigned to essential and pertinent tasks related to professional services rendered to clients. These tasks require less than graduate social work knowledge and skills for adequate implementation.

The delay in establishing nonprofessional roles in social work has been because it is hard to define tasks in specific terms which can be clearly stated for repeated use. The social work function differs from the x-ray technician, for example, whose task is identical for all patients. In social work the nonprofessional performs activities requiring active participation in an inter-actional situation. The distinction between a person conversant with the techniques as opposed to the professional whose knowledge covers not only the processes but the principles and methods within which the techniques are used, has been hard to make, but it is being tried.

There is resistance to the nonprofessional in social work. He is more often described in terms of what he should not do rather than by what he can do or is actually doing. The author says the nonprofessional is often regarded by professionals as a "social unworker". The resistance is also founded on the view that it is a disservice to a recently accepted profession as well as to clients if we now say that the job can be done by well-intentioned, well-endowed, but untrained, persons.

In Chapter IV the work of the social work specialist is outlined. In general, it has three aspects: 1) direct service to clients; 2) indirect service, such as recording and clerical work; 3) administrative duties. The specialist assists social workers in obtaining information for case histories and helps individuals carry out the instructions of the professional staff. He interviews individuals to obtain background information on family life, early childhood, economic status, schooling, occupation, illness, marital adjustment and difficulties in military service. He also extracts pertinent information from military records. He assists in requesting information from social agencies, law enforcement agencies, hospitals, and persons familiar with the individual. He explains to the individual the services that may be obtained through public and private welfare agencies. He submits detailed case reports to the social worker. He plans and organizes the work schedules, assigns duties and instructs subordinate specialists in work techniques and procedures.

There are three levels of specialists. At the lowest level the specialist: 1) Must have a knowledge of techniques of conducting interviews and gathering social history information; 2) Must understand the dynamics of human behavior and the importance of client contact; 3) Must be able to secure historical facts from cooperative, communicative, and undisturbed patients; 4) Must be able to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information; 5) Must be able to assist clients in personal and practical matters, e.g. letterwriting, phone calls, and lack of money 6) Must be able to prepare clear, accurate, and concise reports.

At the second level, to the above tasks are added the ability: 1) to make collateral contacts to corroborate data; 2) to establish rapport and deal with more difficult problems; 3) to secure case histories from those with complex problems; 4) to assist individuals in understanding the treatment or disposition of their case and make use of welfare facilities; 5) to follow-up clients after service to ascertain their ultimate adjustment.

At the third level added to the specifications of levels one and two are: 1) knowledge of administrative channels; 2) regulations and forms of reporting; and 3) the ability to instruct and supervise subordinates.

Training for army specialists for entry into the first level requires the successful completion of a formal course of study at the army school, the equivalent in civilian education, or on-the-job training in the duties. The formal course is of eight weeks duration given at the Army Medical School and is designed to familiarize students with the historical development of social work, its underlying philosophy, techniques of interviewing and recording, aspects of behavior, and social and emotional factors in illness. It also deals with the effective use of military and civilian resources and relevant clerical and administrative duties. The course is geared toward teaching the generic function of social work in the army.

The author corroborated the stated job requirements by interviewing those actually performing the job. Most reported that they considered intake interviewing a major task. Daily consultations are held with professionals to discuss these intake interviews, and plans are made for the client. They are able to call on professionals for help during the intake interview if needed. The author notes that in this instance the nonprofessional's functioning is out of line with the army position that intake should be done by the most experienced and competent social work officers. Most of those interviewed reported that they performed some kind of counseling. The counseling centered around encouraging the client to modify behavior or changing the environment. Group counseling was practiced by a few. Collateral contacts were another major function. Some performed additional miscellaneous tasks in assisting with research, running errands and the like.

Most of the nonprofessionals had college or professional training. The median education was the bachelor's degree. The personal qualities needed were a warm, sincere, resourceful, mature person interested in helping people and oriented towards reality. The median age was 20 to 24.

The balance of this report deals with the social theory formulations and findings. Auxiliary findings indicate that the usefulness and competence of the nonprofessional depend heavily on the caliber of supervision. The integration of nonprofessional personnel into a social work program requires continual supervisory time, in this case usually 4 to 6 hours of supervision per week. Supervisors need to be alert to the varying capabilities of individual nonprofessionals and be able to modify duties. A variety of duties within the scope of subprofessional competence should be delineated in each setting to permit flexibility of assignment.

The author notes that one problem is the tendency of the nonprofessionals to identify with social work on a professional level and therefore have difficulty in differentiating their limited functions. This is further complicated if more than one professional discipline is operating in a multi-function agency. He recommends that functions need clear definition.

The appendix contains the questionnaires, answers to which may be of interest, and samples of open-end questions.

National Association of Social Work. Utilization of Personnel in Social Work: Those With Full Professional Education and Those Without. New York City. February 1962. 40 pages.

A report of a study to formulate an instrument for differentiating tasks in the social work process. Those requiring full professional education and those who do not. The formulation developed appears to conform with the differentiation in practice based on administrative common sense. This is a discussion of the two variables--client vulnerability and worker autonomy, with examples of application of these criteria to determine which of a series of tasks might be best performed by nonprofessionals. There are also some guidelines for the use of the criteria. Included is a bibliography of reports on social work education and studies to differentiate roles.

National Conference on Social Welfare. Use of Personnel Without Professional Training in Social Service Departments. Report on Group Meeting I, Conference. San Francisco, California. May 1959. mimeo. 15 pages.

This report recommends a study of what tasks are essentially professional in nature. A functional rather than a case approach. A sample activity sheet is included for use by social workers.

National Social Welfare Assembly. "The Use of Case Aides in Casework Agencies." Conference on Individualized Services. New York City. December 1958. 33 pages.

This pamphlet contains five papers presented at the conference. These are primarily of historical interest as a reflection of the considerable development of thinking about nonprofessionals since 1958. The nonprofessionals described in social work settings serve primarily as telephone intake interviewers. The reported utilization of nonprofessionals is extremely limited and almost entirely geared to relieving the professionals' conventional agency tasks. There is no suggestion of the special attributes of the nonprofessional, or of providing additional services or methods through the use of this staff category. Also, the concept of indigenousness is notably absent.

The introduction by Robert Morris states: "The use of case aides in casework agencies has been of interest to administration for years. The major questions center on whether the case aide should be used, if so, determining the area of work suitable for assignment, and establishing the qualifications for the position. To these are added the uncertainty about the effect upon standards when staff without full professional training is employed." Morris notes the differing approaches, from employing untrained people as a recruitment device leading to full professional status, to the establishment of permanent nonprofessional careers.

With respect to defining the tasks, he says that: "If the position is well defined, it is not merely an adjunct to the caseworker, but has dignity in itself and will give satisfaction to the individual so employed" (p 2). He cautions against allowing the aide, however, to "imperceptibly slide into functioning as a caseworker" (p 2). He also notes the need for clear distinction between aides and clerical workers.

Olson, Irene. "Junior College Education for Social Service Assistant." Child Welfare. Volume XLV, Number 10. December 1966. pages 599-600, 606.

The Essex Community College in Baltimore has established an associate degree curriculum for a social service assistant. In conjunction with this a new public welfare job classification has been introduced in Maryland for a Public Interviewer. This classification, geared to the two-year associate degree, covers tasks that in the past have required a college degree.

The first step was a joint meeting of the Baltimore County Welfare Board with junior college representatives to consider developing a two-year course for assisting in a variety of social welfare tasks. The college was willing to develop such a curriculum which could be established if the profession would endorse the course, if there would be career opportunities for graduates, and if high school graduates would be interested. A committee composed of representatives of the State Department of Welfare, public and voluntary social agencies, including the Health and Welfare Council, Department of Mental Hygiene, Hospital Council of Maryland, and the Maryland State Commission of Personnel was set up to study and report. The committee provided estimates of the number of associates they thought might be needed by 1968, possible salary ranges, opportunity for field work, and numbers of potential candidates it felt would apply for the course.

A subcommittee set forth the tasks to be assigned to the social service assistant. These were, in hospitals: 1) to obtain information of a personal and financial nature; 2) to set up records; 3) to make appointments; 4) to follow-up to insure that instructions are clear to patient; 5) to act as a liaison between patient and other agencies such as health and welfare departments or private insurance companies; 6) to do ward record work getting information from patients and family; and 7) to function in discharge work as a liaison with patient to insure proper after-care, such as transfers to nursing homes.

In voluntary social agencies: 1) to provide counseling and referral service; 2) to do employment counseling with adolescents; 3) to arrange for medical appointments and follow-up and to keep records; and 4) to provide information and referrals for travelers and newcomers.

In public welfare: 1) to handle initial inquiries to determine eligibility and make appointments; 2) to process applications for medical and financial assistance and 3) to work with clinics and other services and obtain information for and from clients.

In mental health: 1) information and referral; 2) recording; 3) post-hospital home visits, referrals and follow-up for treatment and employment.

The nature of the training includes a background in social and health services; cultural and economic influences on the individual; laws, including the rights and responsibilities of citizens; human growth and development; mental hygiene principles; and medical information, including the meaning of illness to individuals and families. Specific skills include interviewing, business arithmetic, business law, nutrition and home arrangement, English grammar and composition, and optional courses in typing and clerical skills.

The course started in the fall of 1966 and the Maryland State Department of Public Welfare followed the opening of the program with the announcement of new job classifications especially created for graduates to work in the new medical assistance program. The starting salary is set at $4,790 per annum with six increments to $8,590. Similar actions by community chests to establish comparable positions in voluntary agencies is anticipated. Indications are that other junior colleges will follow this lead which established a career ladder attractive to high school graduates leading toward the first step in social work.

Robinson, Ruth B. Description of a Case Aide Program in a Multi-Function Agency. Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service and Children's Aid Society. New York City. mimeo. n.d. 16 pages.

This describes favorably the experience of case aides in the Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service and Children's Aid Society. Aides service telephone applications, make appointments, clear with social service exchange for factual data, etc. In the children's division they make school visits, escort children and the like. Case aides in this agency are college graduates with experience in recreation, department of welfare, or other relevant experience with a real interest in social work and: "The same qualities we look for in a social worker." (p 15).

Tannar, Virginia L. Selected Social Work Concepts for Public Welfare Workers. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Welfare Administration. Bureau of Family Services. Washington, D.C. n.d. 150 pages.

Designed for teachers of public welfare workers, this booklet presents selected basic concepts of social work and suggested methods of teaching. The booklet was developed from an in-service training course run by the Division of Technical Training in an unidentified county welfare department. The course, which consisted of twenty-four 1½ hour group sessions with another hour of outside study, was run for workers with a college degree and at least one year's work experience in welfare.

The introduction and first three chapters deal with how to set up the course, overall guides for the teacher (find the common basis of the group and let this be the starting point, direct but don't lead, etc.) and a brief section on learning theory (the emotional basis of learning, need for time to integrate learning).

The specific course material dealt with in succeeding chapters covers the following areas:

a) Personality theory: summary of what makes a healthy personality, with emphasis on early childhood development and the emotional roots of human behavior.

b) Current concepts of the family: the "nuclear" family is presented as the ideal and stress is laid on the family as "the universal and ideal unit for the growth and development of human beings." Family dynamics, i.e., parent child system, spouse-system, and child-child system are also outlined.

c) One-parent, mother-only family: Discussion of effects of crisis--death, desertion, or divorce--on mother and children and how welfare worker can best handle such crisis situations.

d) The Unmarried Mother Family: The introduction to this chapter tries to provide some background to the problem and community attitudes to it. Some material on the Negro family is given which takes into account all the various sociological theories as to why there is a high illegitimacy rate among Negroes and reasons for the dominant role of the mother in Negro families. Following this, the text deals with how to handle the teenage girl who is pregnant--typical attitudes of unmarried about-to-become mothers and how they can be handled in practical and emotional terms.

e) Casework Concepts: The teaching of casework was done through review and group discussion of actual cases which the worker was involved in. Each worker was asked to choose one case which he thought was "mild," that is, one in which there was some hope for improvement, and reports, records of interviews, and group discussion of these continued throughout the training course. This section also includes some basic material on how to gather and develop the facts in a case ("Guide for Case Summary") together with brief case examples which are to be used as the basis for group discussion. The question of the interview is treated as well--how to develop meaningful relationship with client, purpose of interview, how to be aware of and overcome negative feelings toward client and recognize what client is going through (emotional and stressful nature of situation).

Taran, Freeda B. "The Utilization of Non-Professional Personnel in Social Work Services." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth And Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 95-106.

The model of the case aide in the professionally-oriented agency is the college educated person with some related experience such as welfare or camping. The differentiation of roles hinges on the question of direct assignment of cases to aides. Such agreement as prevails appears to be that the aide can perform standardized services in gathering data, applying specific criteria to the facts, and planning action where no special risk is apparent or where results are not ambiguous. The author suggests a four-level scheme of professional, specialist or technician, subprofessional, and aide. In this scheme the first two levels work with the vulnerable clientel. The establishment of careers for the indigenous is a departure. Here case aides are used without college educations. She describes the Mobilization For Youth program with parent education aides, homemaker aides and indigenous case aides. She notes that in these programs one half of the case aides have college degrees, and concludes that the optimal use of case aides in a social work setting still remains to be defined.

Taran, Freeda B. The Utilization of Non-Professional Personnel in Social Work; Part I: The Social Work Associate. Mobilization For Youth. New York City. October 1963. mimeo. 32 pages.

This is a review of studies of nonprofessionals reported in the literature. The material includes a report of nonprofessionals used by Travelers Aid Society for work with the aged, and an NIMH-funded demonstration project for hospital social service work. Most nonprofessionals are college graduates who function as part of the social work team. The author notes that few statements of job components are explicit and that differentiation is often dependent on the caliber of the aides.

Thursz, Daniel. Volunteer Group Advisors in a National Social Group Work Agency. Doctoral Dissertation. The Catholic University of America Press. Washington, D.C. 1960. 385 pages.

This is the report of a study of the volunteers working for B'nai Brith as group advisors. The study is based on an analysis of questionnaires mailed to advisors and professionals asking them about their attitudes toward the job, the training needs, and differential methods of staffing. A great part of the report gives as background the history of group work, a history of volunteerism in the United States, the history of B'nai Brith and analyzes the characteristics of the volunteers who responded to the questionnaires. The chapter on training needs indicates that most volunteers felt they were insufficiently trained, especially in tasks which might be described as leadership roles. Another need was in understanding the adolescent and his behavior. Of particular interest is that the evaluation of their own performance was one area in which many felt unprepared. This indicates that the nonprofessional is to some extent unsure of his capacity or the effectiveness of his performance, and wants some standards against which to judge himself.

Although most professionals endorse the use of volunteers in group work functions, 64% of instructors of social group work felt that there was a difference in quality and consistency of service between the volunteers and paid nonprofessional staff. Almost all of the adherents to this view felt that the paid nonprofessional group advisor would give the agency better service than the volunteer. The paid nonprofessional is seen by faculty as more responsible, reliable, dependable, and more responsive to the demands of the agency.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. Training Home Economics Program Assistants to Work with Low-Income Families. GPO. Washington, D.C. November 1965. 110 pages.

This is a manual for instructors with a separate section of do's and don't's prepared for the trainee. (See below) Although oriented towards homemakers, it is applicable to other nonprofessional categories. There is an 11-point analysis of local situations which can be used as an outline of data to be gathered for each locality, (p 6). There is an outline of types of community organizations and their general contributions. (pp 10-13). Suggestions are offered for facilitating relationships between professionals and nonprofessionals, (pp 13-17). Guidelines are included for methods of training and teaching adults, (pp 26-30). An evaluation and check list for trainers is also furnished, (pp 33-35). Of particular interest may be the outlines of human needs (pp 44-46); the factors influencing learning (p 47); and the factors in giving and receiving help (pp 54-55). Case studies include role-playing skits for homemakers but have relevance for other nonprofessionals. The manual provides an outline of the principles of social action and a series of steps required to plan, initiate, secure approval for, and organize a group, (pp 97-105).

U.S. Department of Agriculture. Handbook for Home Economics Program Assistants. GPO. Washington, D.C. November 1965. 31 pages. (A reprint of pages 73-95 of Training Home Economics Assistants to Work with Low-Income Families. See above)

A simple manual prepared for program assistants in homemaker programs. Includes how to make contact on a home visit, how to get families to accept the worker, how to get people's interest, how to teach practical matters, how to discuss children with their parents. The lists are do's and don't's to be given directly to trainees but need some amplification and discussion by an instructor.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Closing the Gap in Social Work Manpower. Report of the Departmental Task Force on Social Work Education and Manpower. GPO. Washington, D.C. November 1965. 90 pages.

This is a report of the task force created in 1963, which projects the needs and potential forces for meeting them in social work manpower. It is a basic resource for this kind of data and includes statistical theories. The focus of the report is on the training of the graduate social worker but there is some discussion of needs for nonprofessional manpower.

Current interest in undergraduate education is expanding, as it has been recognized that for many tasks preparation at the bachelor's level is sufficient. This would provide a major recruitment resource not now being utilized to any significant extent, either as direct job preparation or recruitment for graduate education.

A recent development is the identification of tasks that can be performed by staff with technical competence in one particular area. These include services which can be routinized and services supplementing regular social work services. They would not necessarily require more than high school training. Education for these types of jobs is only in the preliminary and developmental stages, but are given impetus by recent legislation. The stated goal is to train 50,000 social work aides by the end of the fiscal 1966. "There is need to develop in the high schools and community colleges organized basic curricula to prepare students for permanent satisfying careers and immediate employment as social welfare technicians, and in ancillary services such as homemakers, child-care workers, as custodial staff in detention and treatment facilities in the field of correction, as aides to the aged, and community action aides." (p. 55)

The report notes the need for experimental and pilot studies to define job classifications, to identify and establish necessary personal qualifications, and to delineate the appropriate body of knowledge and skills so that the technical aide can be effectively utilized in extending the range and quality of social services.

The Appendix lists all federal legislation affecting social work manpower from 1956-1965. There is an extensive bibliography on social work manpower needs.

U.S. Department of Labor. On Group Work - An "Untrained Sub-Professional" Speaks His Mind. Chicago, Illinois. 1963-1964. mimeo. 7 pages.

A paper for the JOBS program in Chicago included in an MDTA report of 1963-4, written by a college graduate counselor on literacy and vocational training. It is an informal description of how to be a group counselor. Contains a section on how to run a group discussion.

F. YOUTH AND CORRECTIONS

DeWees, Dan, and Robert Schrank. The Recruitment and Training of Crew Chiefs in the Urban Youth Work Corps. Mobilization For Youth. New York City. December 1964. mimeo. 18 pages.

A paper discussing the basic issues in the training of crew chiefs to supervise disadvantaged youth in pre-vocational training. The personal qualities and attitudes desirable in crew chiefs and the problems of organizing work training are discussed.

The crew chiefs and foremen have daily responsibilities of supervising a work group of approximately ten 16-20 year old disadvantaged youth in pre-vocational, on-the-job training. For this job the qualities sought are: 1) technical competence--practical and theoretical knowledge of the crafts; 2) a positive view of the trainees' potential; 3) patience and firmness; 4) high energy; 5) identification with the trainees--e.g. ethnic similarity is one factor, but not a sole, or always satisfactory criterion; 6) maturity--recommended 28-50 years of age. The crew chief in general must regard youth not as failures but as victims of a social system. He should view conditions as susceptable to change and really understand the self-help concept. Job descriptions are given on pages 6-7.

Grant, J. Douglas. The Offender as Participant, Not Recipient in the Correctional Process. Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. New Careers Development Project. Sacramento, California. January 20, 1966. mimeo. 14 pages.

This project has set out to create a model for developing teams of professionals and nonprofessionals for work in the correctional field. Professionals work part-time with one graduate student and two nonprofessional assistants (parolees). The training program covers eight months. Post-release performance of parolees in new careers programs is being studied in comparison to controls.

The present fourteen assistants are working on six research projects on violence, job opportunities for the poor, new careers in human services, etc. The organization has also sponsored new careers as teacher aides in a summer program. Programs have demonstrated the manpower potential of the inmates and the ex-inmates.

Grant, J. Douglas. "Trends in Corrections Leading to a New Careers Strategy." in New Careers: Ways Out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth. Report of a Conference held at the Center for Youth and Community Studies. Howard University. Washington, D.C. March 1965. pages 74-82.

The author reviews the trends in corrections leading to a new careers strategy. He describes roles currently being explored in group counseling in prisons, in social therapy and social study research, in armed forces use of specially designated noncommissioned officers who function as correctional counselors, in self-help programs such as AA which can be extended for tutoring and the like, in community centers and Halfway Houses, and in a youth development center staffed by parolees.

Grosser, Charles. The Role of the Nonprofessional in the Manpower Development Program. U.S. Department of Labor. OMPER. Washington, D.C. October 15, 1966. 60 pages.

A review of nonprofessionals in youth employment programs suggesting that nonprofessionals have important effects on professional performance, on clients, and in involving the community, but no influence on the substance of the manpower training program. Projects for the most part see nonprofessionals as useful in solving service provision problems but not as vehicles of change or program innovation. The clearest impact is on the nonprofessional himself. Many have used programs to enormous personal advantage. This overview of nonprofessionals in youth employment programs concentrates on five training programs.

The use of nonprofessionals in MDTA youth programs was in large part the result of influence exerted by the federal funding agencies. These not only provided funds for the employment of nonprofessionals but threatened to set up parallel organizations if the moneys were not used for that purpose. Some indications exist that " should federal support be removed, they would stop using nonprofessionals" (page 21).

The attitudes of various state employment service offices illustrate that they perceive a threat inherent in the use of the indigenous nonprofessional. This forces them to be accountable to the client community, rather than to the total community or to employers. Employment services complain that such workers are not content to stay within the perimeters of their assigned tasks and they see job development as "demanding" rather than asking for job placements.

Some report a rather high turnover among the nonprofessionals. In other youth employment programs nonprofessionals report that they feel their word means nothing. They note that all the work they did in a neighborhood was redone and verified by the downtown office. Professionals felt that nonprofessionals were useful in preemployment and intake work but unable to operate effectively beyond that point. This reflected differences in viewpoint. The nonprofessional feels that placement is a most important service, while professionals are more interested in programs of counseling, training, and education which will make the person more "employable." Professionals also tend to select the most amiable candidates while nonprofessionals believe service should be available to all on a first come, first served basis.

The idea of nonprofessionals as agents of social change is articulated by community action programs, but not by the agencies which are the targets of change.

A great variety of qualifications were sought in nonprofessionals by different projects. This suggests that competence is judged differently by different projects and that each sees the nonprofessional as serving a different role.

The nonprofessionals can identify with clients or with the agency. Which they choose depends to some extent on how they were recruited and selected. The upwardly-mobile person with previous white-collar experience is more likely to identify with the agency. Those who do field work are more apt to identify with the client.

Few plans for establishing career lines for nonprofessionals are operating. Two patterns of advancement are discernable. First, increments in salary are part of the agencies' wage rate schedule. Second, and more frequent, is the changing of jobs, moving to another program at a higher pay rate. As the nonprofessional's white-collar skills increase, he also becomes aware of other CAP or OEO employment opportunities.

Professionals generally view the indigenous worker positively and often somewhat romantically. The idealized view of the nonprofessional's ability to communicate and relate with clients is sometimes belied by performance. Also, professionals tend to underestimate their own ability to relate, to act spontaneously and informally, etc.

Actual project surveys have indicated that nonprofessionals may be highly judgmental and moralistic with respect to clients and may also be somewhat fatalistic. This suggests that nonprofessionals need to be used more selectively, where congeniality counts and not where the professional's objectivity might be more functional. It is incorrect to view all nonprofessional activity as either all positive or all negative.

Professional resistance is greatest when nonprofessionals are assigned to direct service responsibilities. This basically undermines professional training as a requisite for such service. As a result, few administrators made such assignments, preferring to keep nonprofessionals in ancillary tasks or in new services in the field. Little special training for nonprofessionals was developed especially when funds were not made available.

Experience suggests that some professional services can be provided by nonprofessionals but this issue has by no means been resolved. Nonprofessionals tend to be used to reinforce the old double standard of the participation of the poor. The nonprofessional tends to work with the most disadvantaged in slum schools, hospital wards and the like, and the professional with the highly motivated client. In employment services the nonprofessional rarely has contact with the client. Such contact is limited to clients with special disadvantages. The job seeker, the one who is already motivated is referred to the professional.

Major defects of programs is the push for success measured in gross statistics of numbers of clients served rather than in the training and selective use of the nonprofessional. It must be realized that the future of the service professions is linked to the utilization of the nonprofessionals rather than the provision of service by a small trained professional elite.

James, Michael R., et al. Retrospective Analysis of the Pilot Study. Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. New Careers Development Project. Vacaville, California. June 1965. 146 pages.

Analyzes the pilot training sessions conducted from Jan. 7, 1965 - April 31, 1965 of eight inmates, three graduate students and three consultants. This is the first phase of an eight-month training sequence. The report describes the activities and suggests areas of success and those needing improvement. The staff leaned toward a model of training which emphasizes self-direction through self-study. They wished to avoid a too structured program. Of special interest is the section on learning principles.

The goals are to develop certain definite skills. They are: 1) group skills; 2) research skills; 3) organizational dynamics; 4) strategies for planned change; 5) a knowledge of social trends and issues; 6) interview skills; 7) self-awareness; 8) writing; 9) speaking; and 10) reading.

The curriculum is designed around a fundamental set of learning principles. These are: 1) different people learn differently, and a combination of teaching methods is needed; 2) learning is most rapid and usable when it is a function of purposeful activity perceived by the learner; 3) learning is at its best when the learner seeks the answers to self-initiated questions; 4) artistic and game activities can provide learning situations; 5) self-knowledge is not an end but a way of helping the individual learner; 6) self-study is more effective when it is a part of achievement rather than a part of therapy; 7) group sharing of self study is a powerful force.

Working in small teams of two inmates, one graduate student and one professional, they all experienced proposal and report writing, team planning, interviewing and group skills. Each team worked on a different research project.

Teamwork and study occupied over 50% of the time. Teams would periodically review their progress in general discussions. A substantial part of training was organizational role play. The teams would then evaluate and score the role players. There is a recommendation that role play should vary with the situation assigned.

Experience shows that the trainees need more formal instruction in research concepts and techniques.

From the four months' experience, the learning principles were evaluated: 1) At least 3 different methods of learning were provided--learning by doing, team and group discussion around structured subjects, and traditional class and library work. Most trainees seemed to prefer learning by doing. They appeared to struggle with traditional methods. The pilot program did not attempt to determine who learned best by what method. Thus the inferences are all subjective; 2) The notion that learners are more receptive to learning if they see its relevance to a purposeful activity seems to be true. For example, most did not attend writing seminars until the team project needed more writing. Then they eagerly sought help from writing consultants. Also, those who seemed to develop the most were those who had concrete community placement prospects in view; 3) The function of self-initiated questions is not determined. This needs a very permissive atmosphere. Some participants did not ask questions because of a fear of not appearing intelligent; 4) Artistic and game activities were tested only with respect to role playing. Role playing was usually effective but must be seen and understood as a learning tool. Tape recorded materials can be useful. Tape recordings of the role playing sessions can be analyzed by experts who make constructive criticisms. The trainees themselves can evaluate and develop considerable interviewing skills by playing back such tape recordings; 5) on the question of self-knowledge, they used self evaluation tests and group ratings and total group evaluation. A sensitivity session in which the groups freely expressed their feelings about each other was also developed. This leads to a more objective self-view and a knowledge of how one is perceived by others. Group ratings can be a spur to achievement; 6) Using self-study, they compared expectations for themselves and the group with performance.

On balance, one of the better features was that trainees shared with other staff, the responsibilities for deciding how the training should be designed. They also played a part in deciding on the team projects. Some were unable to handle this; this may need strong professional leadership. A number of trainees discovered that they had capabilities which were unknown before and gained confidence and assumed greater responsibility.

They gained in group skills and their ability to control personal anxieties and to postpone conflicts for the sake of completing the work. They became more aware of other's needs and learning styles and developed increased tolerance for living with uncertainties They developed a sense of allegiance a feeling that they can play a vital role in the growing nonprofessional movement.

Lesh, Seymour. The Nonprofessional Worker in Youth Employment Programs.
New York University. Center for the Study of Unemployed Youth.
New York City. February 1966. 16 pages.

This paper summarizes the experiences of the National Committee on Employment of Youth's demonstration program of 1964-5, delineating the role of nonprofessionals in youth employment programs. It notes the need for training in a flexible and at the same time demanding atmosphere. Also, that theory and short conceptional materials be interwoven and related to practical experiences. The nonprofessional needs one supervisor on the job to whom he is responsible and initially, considerable time should be allowed for supervision. The important quality for the nonprofessionals is the ability to innovate, since they are working usually in unstructured or unsystematized fields and often without appropriate materials. Recruitment must include both public and private agencies, and informal nonprofessional contacts.

In selection, the recommendation is that staff look for those who identify with or want to be a part of society, who have a benevolent attitude toward youth, a liking for people, and potential leadership. Some social maturity is needed but great intellect is not required. Education may help, but should not be a major selection criterion. Tests may be useful as diagnostic aids but are not too useful in selection. Careful personal interviewing is the best selection technique.

The report outlines a continuum for upgrading from entry as nonprofessionals to full professional status. Proper use of the nonprofessional does not downgrade services. The nonprofessional not only relieves the professional of routine tasks but adds new dimensions of service.

Misner, Gordon E., The Development of "New Careerist" Positions in the Richmond Police Department. Contra Costa Council of Community Services. Walnut Creek, California. January 1966. 70 pages.

An analysis of the organizational, administrative, and personnel factors in the implementation of a new careers program in the Richmond Police Department. Five police community relations aides were employed. The positive factors were the commitment of the police department to the program and the close control they provided. The problems encountered were those of confidentiality, the matter of justifying the time spent in supervising aides, the resistance, especially of lower ranking personnel, and the tendency to perceive the program solely in terms of public relations. Such problems indicate that program objectives must become increasingly well defined. Detailed job descriptions of the aides are provided.

Defining the job took two months. Initially the police emphasis was on what aides could not do. For example, they would not have the power to make an arrest. The job, as defined, included: 1) work related to juvenile offenders--making home visits to discuss and interpret police programs, crime prevention, laws, etc.; 2) experimenting with methods to relate to youth and parents at group meetings where discussions of delinquent behavior and dangerous neighborhood conditions took place; 3) maintaining appropriate records; 4) gathering data through informal channels; 5) accompanying investigating officers as a nonparticipating observer; 6) making home visits after an investigation to discuss the arrest and the family interests and needs; 7) seeking ways of making contact with youths not involved in delinquent behavior.

Training for aides dealt with the adjustment to work and the fact of having been publicly identified as a "poverty" and "experimental" group. Aides also needed improved language skills with particular attention on report reading and writing, public speaking, observing and conducting meetings, leading discussion groups, making family visits, making household enumerations, etc. They also needed some work on the functions of government and service agencies.

More specific areas of training were the role of the police and of crime prevention, juvenile law and procedures, police report writing, human relations and law enforcement, and crime causation.

Following a six-weeks orientation period by the project, the trainees were assigned to the police department and participated in a regular police recruit training school for a total of 59 hours (compared with 104 hours for regular police officers.) Following this formal training, they were assigned to juvenile bureaus as aides. The training then consisted of on-the-job sessions, and weekly staff meetings held by the project.

Seminars were to be conducted by the Univeristy of California.

For the most part, aides have been assigned to relatively minor cases such as petty theft. Their first task was to enlist the interest of the community in a police-youth discussion and in this they were relatively successful.

Requirements for the job are a high school diploma and/or paid or voluntary experience in community organizations. They must be considered capable of being trained for the work, have a knowledge of the community, an ability to relate to youth, and an ability to write records and reports and talk to residents individually or in groups. The minimum age is 21.

New Careers Development Project. The Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. Nonprofessional Functions Survey: A Report Prepared on the Use of Nonprofessional Parole Aides. Sacramento, California. December 28, 1965. mimeo. 31 pages.

A report of a survey conducted at a state prison to collect information on nonprofessional jobs, and to give nonprofessionals an opportunity for on-the-job training in research. The report attempts to identify the forces contributing to recidivism, the advantages of using nonprofessionals from communities with high delinquency rates to combat recidivism, the duties which could be performed by nonprofessionals, the changes in the community, and identifying training needs for implementing nonprofessional programs inside parole agencies.

Inmates themselves cited crime and delinquency in the community as the major contributing factor to recidivism. They also noted the connections between unemployment, the lack of recreation facilities, the lack of adequate housing, etc.

The major aim in using nonprofessionals, including ex-offenders, was to provide liaison between the parolee, the community and the authority figures. Duties for a nonprofessional might include services connected with education, employment coordination of community needs, housing, neighborhood relations, recreation, counseling, etc.

One possible innovation in the community is the establishment of an organization similar to Alcoholics Anonymous, an agency operated for and staffed by parolees. Nonprofessionals can provide a wide range of services in such organizations.

A job description envisions a four-level design, requiring only an eighth grade education at entry up to two-years of college as an assistant parole agent. The description indicates how the levels could function as an ungraded sequence. Training needs are briefly outlined for all levels, mostly geared to on-the-job training.

The recommendation is made that nonprofessionals from high delinquency areas should work with parolees to improve the community, to prevent delinquency, and to establish a self-help, self-study program.

New Careers Development Project. The Offender as a Correctional Manpower Resource. National Institute of Mental Health and the Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency. Vacaville, California. n.d. 225 pages.

A collection of essays on the use of offenders as aides in correctional institutions. Included among the items are J. Douglas Grant's report on using the offender or ex-offender in research tasks, reporting by ex-offenders on research projects, nonprofessionals as parole aides in the treatment of alcoholism, etc. Job descriptions are included. There is an outline of a training program used with unskilled offenders to equip them to function as aides to professionals working with social problems, and a discussion of learning principles and a scheme for applying quality control to training (pp 175 ff).

New York State Division for Youth,and Yeshiva University. Youth Worker Training Program. New York City. n.d. mimeo. 93 pages.

Describes a summer training program sponsored by the New York State Division for Youth and the graduate school of Yeshiva University, designed to train a variety of young persons for youth work. It furnishes an outline of an eight week training program (pp 21-25), and examples of discussions at key meetings (p 26). The curriculum plan, and topics in an outline form are included.

Their experience indicates that work-study programs may be a means of increasing the ranks of social work personnel and broadening vocational opportunities for socially disadvantaged youth. It cautions that it is hard to translate the experience of a small demonstration to the needs of mass programs; the question of job availability becomes crucial. It is also difficult for demonstration projects to provide jobs when they terminate.

The 1963 program included 20 college students who participated in a work-training program. The program consisted of four mornings of group discussions and one morning of field trips. Afternoons were devoted to supervised field work. There also were evening discussion groups. The primary purpose of the program was to recruit these students into the social work field, but it did not succeed. Although the trainees performed well, they came to regard the social service agency as offering little beyond custodial care, and most were already strongly committed to other fields. There was little provision for establishing individual goals or exploring opportunities in social work. The didactic material was problaby too abstract and might have appeared irrelevant to the field work. Field trips were effective but lacked adequate preparation for developing meaning for the program.

Based on these failures the 1964 program was revised. Socially disadvantaged minority youth, not necessarily college students, were recruited. The program aimed at preparing them for immediate employment in professional or subprofessional jobs. The trainees included graduates of residential treatment centers of the New York State Division For Youth (Rehabilitated ex-offenders), and low-income high school graduates of disadvantaged backgrounds. The curriculum was similar to that used with the first group, but added vocational counseling. The training content included orientation, field trips, talks with area representatives, and recreational activities to promote group interaction. Topics of seminar sessions included: the needs of the area, how to observe and describe behavior, the meaning of human development and behavior, group control, leadership and influence, interviewing techniques, and the urban community and its problems.

Many trainees were placed in youth programs. However, difficulties were encountered in placing trainees with voluntary agencies. They were not prepared to redefine tasks and develop new jobs in order to provide paid subprofessional employment. All they could offer were menial jobs.

There was some attempt to do evaluation of the training to determine which characteristics made for greater success. The program used the Kuder Preference Test, the Minnesota Multi-Phase Personality Inventory, and open-end questionnaires, opinions of trainees themselves, and evaluation by supervisors. Evaluation forms and samples are included. The tasks performed by the high school group, the college group and the ex-offender group are furnished (pp 56-57). The trainees preferred discussion to lectures. They distinctly preferred topics on human behavior to more abstract sociological questions. The failure to detect any discernable personality or vocational patterns among successful trainees suggests that a wide range of persons may be able to serve competently as youth workers, and that programs must foster their development.

ADDITIONAL TITLES

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